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ABSTRACT

This guide is designed to provide a variety of tools and techniques for planning: tools such as assessment instruments, teaching materials, record and report forms; techniques such as teaching methods for the various reading program objectives; organizational plans for the effective management of students and facilities; and evaluation strategies for determining the overall effectiveness of the program. Section 1, "Objectives," includes a listing of objectives for (1) prereading experiences; (2) word recognition; (3) comprehension; (4) study skills; and (5) attitudes, interests, and values. Section 2, "Needs Assessment," discusses norm-referenced, criterion-referenced, and informal tests. Section 3, "Early Reading Experiences," discusses characteristics important to early reading: auditory discrimination, visual discrimination, and letter identification. Activities for developing each of these skills are presented. Section 4, "Instructional Methods," emphasizes techniques and strategies for the teacher to use in the areas of word recognition, vocabulary, comprehension, and study skills. An explanation of reading skills and techniques for the content areas reading is also included. Section 5, "Affective Dimension of Reading," deals with developing reading interest, attitudes, and values. Included in this section are assessment techniques as well as practical strategies for instruction. Section 6, "Organization for Instruction," includes a discussion of administrative and classroom organizational patterns. Section 7, "Evaluation of the Reading Program," presents information which is designed to aid in the evaluation of the total school reading program. (MS)

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reading effectiveness program

ELEMENTARY CURRICULUM GUIDE

Indiana Department of Public Instruction • Harold H. Negley, Superintendent

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION
Office of Educational Research and Improvement
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ELEMENTARY CURRICULUM GUIDE

Indiana Department of Public Instruction • Harold H. Negley, Superintendent
Division of Reading Effectiveness • September 1983

Foreword

Millions of Americans, young and old, are at a disadvantage socially, emotionally, educationally and economically because they cannot read well enough to function in society. Students have the chance to overcome such handicaps. To do so they must be provided education at all levels that will equip them with skills to compete successfully in the employment market. This same education must equip them to understand and live effectively with the personal and social changes affecting their lives. Foremost among these skills are those of reading. Today's students must read with ever increasing understanding for the development of their talents as individuals. Reading should not be conceived as a separate strand but as an integral, interwoven aspect of the total school curriculum.

One of the basic purposes of formal education today is to develop independent learners. The foundation for this process begins early and gains strength in the elementary grades. Schools, by themselves, cannot be expected to provide an individual with sufficient knowledge to last a lifetime. Formal education should acquaint students with the structure of various disciplines and equip them with skills with which to explore these disciplines independently. Teachers in today's schools should expose students to broad areas of knowledge and guide their exploration of basic concepts within those areas.

The opportunity for an individual to learn to read effectively is basic to our public education system. We have arrived at a point in time which holds forth the possibility of even greater impact on the factors that impede this opportunity. Our efforts cannot succeed without the enthusiastic support of educators who are in daily contact with the children who need help.

I pledge my assistance in mobilizing public support to accomplish these tasks. The real job, however, must be performed on a school-to-school, child-by-child basis. I am asking educators, parents, boards of education and the public to join this crusade. If a partnership of parents and educators is forged that succeeds in solving this basic problem of reading, the children of Indiana will be assured the tools necessary to achieve a productive, satisfying life.

Harold H. Negley
State Superintendent

Acknowledgments

The Indiana Department of Public Instruction would like to acknowledge the diligent work of the Division of Reading Effectiveness staff in their efforts to revise the Elementary Reading Guide. A nucleus group was given the primary responsibility for this endeavor. It has been a laborious and arduous task, however, this committee brought to the task a wealth of knowledge, experience, creativity and commitment. Countless hours were spent in planning, researching, writing, evaluating, and rewriting the various drafts. It is with a deep sense of appreciation that the Indiana Department of Public Instruction recognizes the contributions of those individuals who assisted in the compilation of this guide.

The *Elementary Reading Guide* was developed under a grant from the Title II: Basic Skills Improvement Program, grant number *#W008105053,* Department of Education. However, the contents of this publication do not necessarily represent the policy of the agency, and no official endorsement by the federal government should be inferred.

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Introduction

There is no question that the ability to read efficiently and effectively is critical for survival in today's society. The development of adequate reading skills is the responsibility of the elementary classroom teacher. In order for the teacher to respond to these demands, he/she must have available appropriate resources and guidance in developing teaching strategies to meet each child's individual needs.

In order for the teacher to provide an effective reading program, regardless of the approach adopted, that program must be carried out in a well organized and carefully planned manner. Such planning requires a variety of tools and techniques — tools such as assessment instruments, teaching materials, record and report forms; techniques such as teaching methods for the various reading program objectives; organizational plans for the effective management of students and facilities, and evaluation strategies for determining the overall effectiveness of the program. This guide is designed to provide these tools and techniques.

An effective reading program must be based on a well defined and clearly stated set of reading program objectives. This guide includes an example of a specific set of reading program objectives which may serve as a model for program design. Individual school systems may use these objectives advisedly, making alterations or extending areas that best enhance local needs. While the objectives may vary from one program to another, the critical factor is the commitment of educators toward accomplishing their objectives.

The guide is designed specifically as a practical aid for the teacher. The format was selected for its utility, and the content developed with objectives and activities designed to give the elementary teacher practical teaching ideas. Examples are provided to illustrate the types of materials and ideas described. The guide is not intended to be an end in itself. As meaningful supplementary material relevant to local needs is added, its utility and practicality increase.

The Indiana concept of what effective reading instruction should be relies heavily on the creativity and the unique characteristics of local school communities. Foremost concentration is on a variety of teaching/learning strategies designed to fit individual needs and interests. To meet these needs, the guide includes the following sections which reflect a "continuous progress" philosophy of reading instruction, a philosophy which will allow each child to progress at his/her own rate.

Section I, "Objectives," includes a listing of objectives for 1) prereading experiences, 2) word recognition, 3) comprehension, 4) study skills and 5) attitudes, interests and values.

Section II, "Needs Assessment," discusses norm-referenced, criterion-referenced and informal tests. The chapter is designed to aid in the selection of the appropriate instrument(s) to assess student progress.

Section III, "Early Reading Experiences," discusses characteristics important to early reading: auditory discrimination, visual discrimination and letter identification. Activities for developing each of these skills are presented.

Section IV, "Instructional Methods," emphasizes techniques and strategies for the teacher to use in the areas of word recognition, vocabulary, comprehension, and study skills. An explanation of reading skills and techniques for the content areas reading is also included.

Section V, "Affective Dimension of Reading," deals with developing reading interest, attitudes, and values. Included in this section are assessment techniques as well as practical strategies for instruction.

Section VI, "Organization for Instruction," includes a discussion of administrative and classroom organizational patterns. Several grouping plans are suggested as well as examples of specific organization strategies.

Section VII, "Evaluation of the Reading Program," presents information which is designed to aid in the evaluation of the total school reading program.

Section I
Objectives

Chapter 1
Reading Program Objectives

1 Reading Program Objectives

A clearly specified set of program objectives is an important element in any effective reading program. Although it is to be expected that these objectives will vary somewhat from program to program, it is critical that they be clearly and explicity stated. The set of reading program objectives listed below is designed to suggest a format for stating program objectives. The specific objectives included cover the major reading areas of: (1) prereading, (2) word recognition, (3) comprehension, (4) study skills and (5) attitudes, interests and values.

PREREADING

1. Socialization — Group Activities
   The student will be able to cooperate and participate in group activities.

2. Socialization — Self-Concept
   The student will be able to view himself as a capable and important individual.

3. Auditory Discrimination — Familiar Sounds
   Given a situation in which his eyes are closed and a familiar sound is made, the student will name the sound.

4. Auditory Discrimination — Words
   After listening to a pair of words, the student will be able to state whether the pronounced words are the same or different.

5. Auditory Discrimination — Word Parts
   After listening to a pair of words, the student will be able to state which words begin alike, end alike or have the same sound in the middle.

6. Oral Expression — Interpersonal Communication
   Given a situation in which there is a need to communicate, the student will be able to orally express his ideas to others.

7. Oral Expression — Word Beginnings
   After listening to a word, the student will be able to pronounce another word which begins with the same sound.

8. Oral Expression — Rhyming Words
   After listening to a series of rhyming words, the student will state another rhyming word with the same sound pattern.

9. Visual Discrimination — Figures
   Given a group of figures, some of which are alike and some of which are different, the student will identify those that are alike.

10. Visual Discrimination — Letters
    Given several identical letters and one clearly different, the student will identify the different letter.

11. Visual Discrimination — Words
    Given a group of words, some of which are alike and some of which are different, the student will identify those which are alike.

12. Auditory — Visual Discrimination — Letter Identification
Given several letters of the alphabet, the student will be able to select specific letters named by the teacher.

13. Auditory — Visual Discrimination — Letter Names
Given visually a letter of the alphabet, the student will be able to name it.

14. Language Development — Spoken and Printed Words
The student will demonstrate that he knows the words he hears are the same words that are written in the books the teacher reads aloud.

15. Listening Comprehension — Story Meaning
The student will demonstrate the ability to listen to and comprehend children's books which the teacher reads aloud by retelling the story.

16. Listening Comprehension — Drawing Conclusions
The student will react to parts of a story read to him by the teacher by displaying knowledge, interest and attitudes toward the story parts.

17. Listening Comprehension — Drawing Conclusions
The student will be able to anticipate events in or endings to stories which the teacher reads aloud.

18. Following Directions — Oral Commands
Given an oral command, the student will be able to follow its directions.

WORD RECOGNITION

1. Sight Words — Picture Names
Given a group of objects or pictures and labels, the student will match each label with its corresponding object or picture.

2. Sight Words — High Frequency Words
Given common words selected from a list of high-frequency words, the student will recognize any word after a flash exposure.

3. Letter Function — Consonant and Vowel Identification
Given any letter of the alphabet, the student will identify it as being either a consonant or a vowel.

4. Phonics Analysis — Consonants
Given a word orally and a list of letters, the student will match the word's initial, medial or final consonant sound with its corresponding letter on the list.

5. Phonics Analysis — Consonant Blends
Given a word which begins with a consonant blend, the student will be able to name and/or write the two letters which comprise the blend.

6. Phonic Analysis — Phonograms
Given a common phonogram or word family, the student will be able to pronounce new words created by substituting various consonants or blends in the initial position.

7. Phonics Analysis — Consonant Digraphs
Given a written list of consonant digraphs and listening to a word pronounced orally, the student will identify the digraph which begins the word.

8. **Phonics Analysis — Short Vowels**
Given a word orally and a written list of vowels, the student will identify the short vowel heard in that word.

9. **Phonics Analysis — Long Vowels**
Given a word orally and a written list of vowels, the student will identify the long vowel heard in that word.

10. **Phonics Analysis — Vowel Digraphs**
Given a group of one-syllable words having a vowel digraph, the student will pronounce each word correctly.

11. **Phonics Analysis — Schwa**
Given a list of the words containing the *schwa* sound, the student will identify each vowel having that sound.

12. **Context — Word Identification**
Given a sentence in which a word has been omitted, the student will use the context of the sentence to determine the missing word.

13. **Structural Analysis — Inflectional Endings**
The student will be able to decode a word by identifying root or base words and endings which change the tense of verbs or number of nouns or which indicate possessives.

14. **Structural Analysis — Prefixes and Suffixes**
Given a list of prefixes or suffixes with their meanings and a list of root words, the student will add a prefix or suffix from the list to each word and write the meaning of the newly formed word.

15. **Structural Analysis — Compound Words**
Given a list of compound words, the student will identify the component parts of the compound words.

16. **Structural Analysis — Contractions**
Given a list of expressions such as "are not," "will not," etc., the student will write them as contractions and include their apostrophes.

17. **Structural Analysis — Syllabication**
The student will be able to use syllabication to break words into smaller units which he can pronounce and blend back into a word which makes sense to him.

18. **Dictionary Usage — Pronunciation Key**
Given a dictionary and an unknown word, the student will use the pronunciation key to determine the way in which the word should be pronounced.

19. **Application — Trade Books**
Given a trade book with limited and easy vocabulary, the student will read the book, making use of the word recognition skills he has learned.

COMPREHENSION

1. **Vocabulary — Synonyms**
Given pairs of words, the student will identify those which are synonyms.

2. **Vocabulary — Antonyms**
Given pairs of words, the student will identify those which are antonyms.

3. **Vocabulary — Multiple Meanings**
Given a word of multiple meanings, the student will state two or three meanings of the word.

4. **Vocabulary — Homonyms**
Given a series of words, the student will identify the set of homonyms contained therein.

5. **Vocabulary — Hyperbole**
Given a passage containing a hyperbole, the student will identify the hyperbole.

6. **Vocabulary — Personification**
Given a group of sentences, several of which contain personification, the student will identify the sentences of that figurative style.

7. **Vocabulary — Simile**
Given passages containing similes, the student will identify each simile.

8. **Vocabulary — Metaphor**
Given a passage containing a metaphor, the student will identify the metaphoric statement.

9. **Vocabulary — Onomatopoeia**
Given a sentence containing onomatopoeia, the student will identify the onomatopoeic word.

10. **Vocabulary — Colloquialism**
Given a selection containing colloquial expressions, the student will identify the colloquialisms.

11. **Vocabulary — Slang**
Given a selection containing slang expressions, the student will identify the slang expressions.

12. **Vocabulary — Suffix Meaning**
Given a list of suffixes with their meanings and a list of root words, the student will add a suffix from the list to each word and write the meaning of the newly formed word.

13. **Vocabulary — Prefix Meaning**
Given a list of prefixes and a set of prefix word definitions, the student will supply the prefix word having the same meaning as each definition by using the prefixes listed.

14. **Context — Word Meaning**
Given a sentence containing a word with an unfamiliar meaning, the student will use the context of the sentence to determine the word's meaning.

15. **Context — Multiple Meanings**
Given pairs of sentences containing the same word, but in which the word has different meanings, the student will identify the meaning of the word in each context.

16. **Literal — Specific Information**
Given a paragraph, the student will locate the sentence which answers a specific question.

17. **Literal — Noting Detail**
Given a picture missing an obvious detail, the student will identify that detail.

18. **Literal — Reading for Details**
The student will demonstrate his ability to identify details by listing a given number of specific facts contained in a given selection.

19. Literal — Recalling Sequence
After listening to a given story, the student will retell its events in sequence.

20. Literal — Determining Sequence
Given a group of pictures depicting a familiar series of events in scrambled sequence, the student will retell its events in sequence.

21. Literal — Main Idea
The student will select from a list of three statements the one which most closely describes the main idea in a given sentence.

22. Interpretive — Recognizing Emotional Attitudes
Given a short story, the student will locate and list the words which identify the main character's feelings.

23. Interpretive — Relationships
Given a selection of cause and effect relationships, the student will identify these relationships by matching each cause statement with its corresponding effect statement.

24. Interpretive — Character Identification
Given a list of characters from a specific story, the student will identify the characteristics of each as implied by the content of the story.

25. Interpretive — Character Reactions
Given a selection in which one of the characters demonstrates a definite reaction to another character or an event, the student will state the character's reaction and the possible reason for the reaction.

26. Interpretive — Character Analysis
Given a story in which there are two characters of widely different personalities, the student will identify and state the similarities and differences between the two characters.

27. Interpretive — Character Affect
Given a story in which the main character reacts in a variety of ways to different situations, the student will identify and state each reaction as being either reasoned or emotional.

28. Interpretive — Drawing Conclusions
Given a story without its ending and three different conclusions, the student will select the conclusion which best predicts the story's ending.

29. Interpretive — Predicting Outcomes
Given the first part of a story, the student will state what he anticipates the outcome of the story will be.

30. Interpretive — Sensory Images
Given phrases containing sensory images such as "silky fur," "bitter apples," etc., the student will identify the sense suggested by each phrase.

31. Interpretive — Generalization
Given a selection containing two or more ideas or aspects concerning a topic, the student will form and state a generalization about that topic.

32. Interpretive — Relevant Information
Given a prepared selection on a topic in which some of the information is relevant and some is not relevant, the student will list the relevant information.

33. Interpretive — Developing Solutions
Given a selection which is a mystery without the solution given, the student will develop and state a solution based on the facts presented in the selection.

34. Interpretive — Emotive Expressions
Given a list of emotive and informative expressions, the student will classify the expressions into the correct emotive or informative category.

35. Interpretive — Humor
Given a series of jokes, the student will identify the element of humor in each joke.

36. Interpretive — Plot
Given a story, such as a well known fairy tale, the student will identify the plot of the story.

37. Critical — Fact or Fantasy
Given an animal story in which the characters act like people, the student will identify those actions which are unrealistic for animals to perform.

38. Critical — Fact or Opinion
Given a group of sentences, some of which are facts and some of which are opinions, the student will state which are fact and which are opinions.

39. Critical — Controversy
Given a controversial statement, the student will locate and read information which supports or nullifies the statement.

40. Critical — Advertisement
Given an advertisement in which the purpose is to sell a product, the student will state his reaction to the author's ideas in light of the "sales pitch" approach.

41. Critical — Moral and Value Issues
Given information on a subject involving a moral or value issue, the student will form and state a judgment concerning the issue and state the reasons for his judgment.

42. Critical — Judging Content
Given the title of a nonfiction book, the student will state what he would expect to find in terms of information in the book.

43. Critical — Judging Statements
Given a series of statements and a specific purpose, the student will select those statements that are important to the development of the purpose or topic.

44. Critical — Evaluating Information
Given a selection of information pertaining to one topic, the student will state which information is of enough importance that it should be retained.

45. Critical — Relating Personal Experience
Given a story in which one of the characters has a rather common experience, the student will verbalize personal experiences he has had that are similar in nature.

46. Critical — Author's Style
Given a group of paragraphs taken from new stories, one of which is written by a specified author whose style is familiar, the student will identify the paragraph written by that author.

47. Critical — Author's Mood
    Given a selection or story that develops a feeling or mood, the student will state the mood the author is attempting to develop and the words the author uses to develop this mood.

48. Critical — Author's Attitude
    Given a selection in which the author implies a definite attitude, the student will identify and state the attitude of the author.

49. Critical — Author's Qualifications
    Given a short selection and the biographical data on different authors, the student will state which author would be most qualified to write the selection and why he feels that author would be most qualified.

50. Punctuation — Period
    Given a selection to be read orally, the student will demonstrate his understanding that a period indicates the end of a sentence by dropping his voice on the last word and stopping before continuing on to the next sentence.

51. Punctuation — Question Mark
    Given a selection to be read orally, the student will demonstrate his understanding that a question mark indicates that a question is being asked by raising his vocal inflection on the last word and then stopping.

52. Punctuation — Comma
    Given sentences in which commas have been used to imply different phrasing, the student will verbalize the correct phrasing of each sentence and explain the meaning of each sentence.

53. Punctuation — Exclamation
    Given a selection to be read orally, the student will demonstrate his understanding of the exclamation mark by reading the sentence in an excited tone of voice and then stopping before going on to the next sentence.

STUDY SKILLS

1. Work Skills — Following Directions
    Given an oral command, the student will follow its directions.

2. Alphabetizing — Letters
    Given a set of scrambled letters, the student will arrange them in alphabetical order.

3. Alphabetizing — Words
    Given a group of words in random order, the student will arrange them in alphabetical order.

4. References — Dictionary Definitions
    Given a dictionary and a list of six words, the student will locate their definitions and write a sentence using each word.

5. References — Dictionary Guide Words
    Given a list of words, the student will identify the dictionary guide words for each.

6. References — Dictionary Variant Meanings
    Given a dictionary and several sentences containing the same multi-meaning word in different contexts, the student will use the dictionary to identify the meaning of the word as used in each sentence.

7. References — Dictionary Pronunciation Key
Given the pronunciation key for the diacritical markings in a dictionary, the student will correctly pronounce a list of words containing the same diacritical markings.

8. References — Encyclopedia Guide Words
Given a specific topic, the student will locate the information in an encyclopedia and identify the guide words for the topic.

9. References — Encyclopedia Index
Given an encyclopedia index, the student will locate specific topics within it.

10. References — Encyclopedia Key Topic
Given a reading selection of factual material, the student will identify its key words which may be used to locate additional information in any encyclopedia.

11. References — Reader's Guide
Given several topics and the Reader's Guide to Periodical Literature, the student will locate at least two sources of information for each topic.

12. Library Skill — Card Catalog
Given a list of books, the student will locate each one in the card catalog of his school library.

13. Parts of Books — Table of Contents
Given a reading text, the student will demonstrate his ability to use the table of contents by identifying the pages on which a specific story begins and ends.

14. Parts of Books — Glossary
Given a textbook and a list of words found within its glossary, the student will locate the glossary and list the definition it gives for each word.

15. Parts of Books — Index
Given the index of a book, the student will locate specific topics within it.

16. Parts of Books — List of Maps and Illustrations
Given a list of maps and illustrations, the student will identify the page or pages on which a specific map or illustration may be found.

17. Parts of Books — List of Tables and Figures
Given a list of tables and figures, the student will identify the page or pages on which a specific table or figure may be found.

18. Parts of Books — Chapter and Section Headings
Given a book containing chapter and sectional headings, the student will locate specific, desired information in response to a guide question using these headings.

19. Parts of Books — Side and Paragraph Headings
Given a book containing side headings and paragraph headings, the student will locate specific, desired information in response to a guide question using these headings.

20. Parts of Books — Footnotes
Given a book containing footnotes, the student will demonstrate his understanding of the footnote by using the information it contains to locate the original source or additional information.

21. Newspapers — Index
Given a newspaper index, the student will locate specific information in the newspaper.

22. Telephone Directory — Specific Information
Given a telephone directory, the student will locate specific information within it.

23. Tables and Schedules — Time Table
Given a time schedule, the student will interpret its contents by completing an information table.

24. Graphic Materials — Maps
Given a map, the student will use its legend and key to identify any factual information it contains.

25. Graphic Materials — Globes
Given a globe, the student will interpret its configurations by answering specific questions on its content.

26. Graphic Materials — Diagrams
Given any diagram with an incomplete information chart, the student will interpret the diagram by completing the missing information on the chart.

27. Graphic Materials — Graphs
Given any graph, the student will interpret its information by answering questions on comparisons between specific portions of its content.

28. Graphic Materials — Models
Given appropriate information about a specific geographical area, the student will construct a model of the area in papier-mache.

29. Organizing Information — Outlining, Main Topics
Given an article, the student will outline in topic form its main points.

30. Organizing Information — Outlining, Subtopics
Given an article, the student will outline its contents in main topic, subtopic form.

31. Organizing Information — Outlining, Details
Given an article, the student will outline in main topic, subtopic, detail from the contents of the article.

32. Organizing Information — Paraphrasing
Given a selection of informative, factual material, the student will demonstrate his ability to paraphrase the information by stating the main ideas and some of the details in his own words.

33. Organizing Information — Summarizing
Given facts of information pertaining to one subject, the student will organize them by writing a short summary of their content.

34. Organizing Information — Classifying
Given two headings and a list of items, the student will classify each one under its proper categorical heading.

35. Organizing Information — Bibliographies
Given a book, the student will write its identifying characteristics in correct bibliographical form.

36. Reading Rate — Skimming
Given a reading selection, the student will quickly determine its general ideas by adjusting his reading rate to skim the material within a time limit.

37. **Reading Rate — To Fit Purpose**
Given a selection to read and a definite purpose for the reading, the student will adjust his rate of reading to fit the material and the purpose. This will be evident through his ability to discuss the set purpose.

INTERESTS, ATTITUDES AND VALUES

1. **Awareness — Information**
The student will be aware of the information gathering potential of reading.

2. **Awareness — Enjoyment**
The student will be aware of the enjoyment which can be derived through the reading of literature.

3. **Awareness — Personal Growth**
The student will be aware of the opportunities for personal growth which reading provides.

4. **Interest — Information**
The student will demonstrate an interest in using books and other printed matter as a source of information.

5. **Interest — Enjoyment**
The student will demonstrate an interest in literature being read to or by him.

6. **Interest — Personal Needs**
The student will actively seek out and examine books and other printed matter to explore their potential for fulfillment of a personal need.

7. **Attitude — Recreational Reading**
The student will frequently engage in recreational reading when faced with a number of alternatives for use of leisure time.

8. **Attitude — Purposeful Reading**
The student will frequently use reading as a means of gathering information, deriving knowledge and seeking understanding.

9. **Attitude — Reading Ability**
The student will actively participate in learning activities designed to increase his reading ability.

10. **Value — Personal Purpose**
The student will develop his own purposes for reading in relation to his personal value system.

11. **Value — Literature**
The student will identify and read specific literature which is related to his personal value system.

12. **Value — Involvement**
The student will develop a sense of identification and emotional involvement with literature.

13. **Value — Use of Resources to Locate Literature**
The student will effectively use various resources to locate literature related to his enjoyment and information needs.

Section II
Needs Assessment

Chapter 2
Student Performance

Chapter 3
Reading Potential

Chapter 4
Survey of Personnel

Chapter 5
Choosing and Using Tests

A basic premise in reading programming is that virtually all children can learn to read provided that appropriate methods and materials are used. Given this basic premise, our first task in meeting the goal of teaching all children to read is to conduct an assessment of needs. It is vital that all of the diverse needs of the school and students are included so that any new program to be designed will proceed logically from the recognized needs and will not be merely different from what went before.

Basically, needs assessment is an attempt to measure the gap between "what is" and "what should be." The "what is" includes the ability and performance levels of the students, including any physical, emotional and sociocultural factors which can have a bearing on their academic achievement. In addition to studying students and their achievement, we must look at the personnel of the school, the material and fiscal resources available, and any community resources and pressures which can affect the school's reading program.

When a school decides that it needs to examine its reading programs with the possibility of making changes, it is essential that everyone concerned be involved. The critical self-evaluation necessary can be a difficult and threatening experience unless teachers, administrators, specialists, children and parents are all aware that a needs assessment is not a "witch hunt" or an attempt to find someone to blame for the underachievement in reading of some children. An evaluation of the achievement level and specific reading deficiencies of children is necessary. An examination of the training, abilities and competencies of classroom and special teachers is necessary. The objective is to determine what and where the deficiencies are so that effective plans can be made to eliminate or minimize them while maximizing the strong points. Everyone can be expected to perform better when they are involved in designing a program rather than having the program imposed upon them.

All of the areas of program planning — needs assessment, setting goals and objectives, implementation, evaluation — overlap. Needs assessment is presented here as though it is an isolated phase only for clarification of procedure or purpose. In reality, one does a needs assessment when one looks at the gap between present materials inventory and required materials inventory in the program planning phase. Also, for example, one does a needs assessment during evaluation when a test score is compared with a desired goal or outcome. Theoretically, at the beginning of needs assessment we gather as much data as possible without evaluating it. The evaluation of the data is done at the beginning of the program planning phase when we list our identified needs in order of priority and look at alternative methods of meeting those needs. We are making value judgments (evaluation), however, by the very fact of deciding which data should be gathered, what is important and what is not.

The following outline is presented to give an overview of needs assessment, after which the components will be discussed in more detail.

I. STUDENT PERFORMANCE

A. Determine the present reading levels of children.
B. Isolate the specific kinds of reading problems the children are having (e.g., phonics) and, at the level of the individual classroom, narrow down even further (e.g., blends).
C. Measure (or determine) the reading potential of the children.
D. Determine as nearly as possible the causes of underachievement.

II. PERSONNEL

A. Inventory the present personnel in the reading program, including classroom teachers and reading specialists. This inventory should include their training, experience, attitudes and special curricular interests.
B. Inventory nonreading personnel who are available, e.g., psychologists, speech and hearing therapists, guidance counselors. This inventory might also include their knowledge of reading and the factors which can interfere with effective reading.

III. PRESENT READING PROGRAM

A. Location in the school (e.g., classroom, reading lab.)
B. The basic approaches used (basal readers, individualized reading, language experience.)
C. The time available for reading.
D. The type of classroom grouping and organization (self-contained, departmentalized, open classroom, team teaching, and other specialized plans).
E. The use of reading specialists (e.g., one-to-one remedial teaching, consultant to classroom teacher, resource centers).
F. Inservice training in reading for specialists and classroom teachers.
G. The present reading evaluation program, including recordkeeping patterns.
H. The impact on the reading program of other school programs (e.g., Chapter I and other "Chapter" programs, the use of aides, etc.).

IV. THE SCHOOL PLANT AND RESOURCES

A. The size, location and resources of the school media center.
B. The reading resources and materials — machines, audio-visual equipment and multi-level reading material available in the classrooms or elsewhere in the building.

V. THE AVAILABILITY OF FISCAL RESOURCES

A. Money available to the reading program from the local school budget.
B. "Chapter" monies.
C. Private foundations.

VI. PROFESSIONAL RESOURCES AVAILABLE

A. Specialized clinics, reading centers, colleges and university departments, private reading specialists, the Department of Public Instruction.
B. Consultant help available from sources similar to the above.
C. Mental health centers, psychologists, psychiatrists, private reading tutors, etc.

The above outline can be expanded or shortened to conform with the kind of needs assessment desired locally.

2 Student Performance

Data regarding the achievement levels of students can be gathered in several ways. Informal measures such as cumulative records, teacher judgement and checklists can be used as well as formal testing. Generally speaking, the more sources of data available the greater the confidence can be placed in the results. During the data gathering phase of needs assessment, concern should be primarily with gathering together raw measurement data without doing a great deal of evaluation of it. The evaluation of the data comes when one is ready to analyze it and to determine a rank-order list of priorities.

A. TEST SCORES. Most of the tests which schools use in needs assessment (as well as for other purposes) yield one of the following types of scores:

1. *Grade level equivalent score*
This is probably the least meaningful type of score to use but probably the score most often used! These scores can be misleading and confusing although they have the appeal of appearing logical. They show how well a student did on the test compared with the "average" student at the corresponding grade placement.

2. *Percentile rank*
This is a derived score which is stated in terms of the student's relative standing in comparison with the standardization sample expressed as a percentage. A student who scores at the 63rd percentile did better than 63 per cent of the students in the specified group. It does not mean that the student correctly answered 63 per cent of the questions on the test.

3. *Stanine*
A stanine is a standard score (an abbreviation for STANDARD NINE) with nine divisions. The range is from the first stanine (low) to the ninth stanine (high). There are a number of other standard scores used such as deciles — 10 units, and quartiles — four units.

The following chart is presented to illustrate the relationship between stanines and percentiles. It may be used to convert one score to another. Such converted scores should be regarded as approximations, however. The chart may *not* be used to compare percentile scores on one test with stanine scores on another since different populations were used in the norming process.

Percentile		Stanine
96-99		9
89-95		8
77-88	HIGH	7
60-76		6
40-59		5
23-39	MIDDLE	4
11-22		3
4-10		2
1-3	LOW	1

B. PRESENT STUDENT ACADEMIC STATUS. First, a general *level* of achievement must be determined; second, any specific problem areas must be identified, and third, a determination of the possible reasons for deficiencies must be made.

1. *Group Reading Achievement Tests.*
(Also known as group reading tests, survey tests, reading sections of achievement test batteries, standardized tests, norms referenced reading tests). The group survey test is the type most commonly used by school systems in their regular testing programs. Most such tests yield only one or two scores (vocabulary and comprehension) and provide norms in one or more of the following ways: percentiles, grade level equivalents, stanines, normal curve equivalents (NCE's). Survey tests can be helpful when used for the purposes for which they were designed. Such tests show relative rather than absolute levels of achievement. That is, they measure the progress of a program or of children from year to year. When one is interested in determining the general level of a child's or a class's achievement, the survey test can be helpful. When a school system is planning to use the same test over a period of several years, it is often recommended that local norms be developed.

Group Reading Achievement Tests

California Achievement — CTB/McGraw Hill
Comprehensive Test of Basic Skills — CTB/McGraw Hill
Developmental Reading Test — Rand McNally College Publishing Company
Gates, MacGinitie — Teachers College Press Corporation
Lee-Clark Reading Tests — CTB/McGraw Hill
Metropolitan Achievement Test — Psychological Corporation
SRA Achievement — Science Research Associates
Stanford Achievement — Psychological Corporation

2. *Group Diagnostic Reading Tests.*
These tests are also referred to as "analytic" tests or "inventories." The term diagnostic is used here since it seems to be the name most commonly used. It is likely, however, that one of the other terms is more accurate. They are analytic in that they measure more specific aspects of reading to tell what kinds of problems children are having. Most diagnostic tests take from 2 to 4 hours to administer, but they provide more information than the group *survey* tests, which require a shorter period of time for administration.

Group Diagnostic Tests

California Phonics Survey — CTB/McGraw Hill
Doren Diagnostic Reading Tests — American Guidance Service
McCullough Word Analysis Test — Ginn and Company
Silent Reading Diagnostic Test — Rand McNally College Publishing Company
Stanford Diagnostic Reading Test — Psychological Corporation
Reading Yardsticks — Riverside Publishing Company

3. *Individual Diagnostic Tests.*

These tests (and, again, the term "diagnostic" can be misleading) must be administered to one child at a time, with some skill and experience on the part of the examiner required. These tests give information about more specific deficiency areas than do the above, and, in addition, allow the examiner to observe the child's reading habits and skills more closely and to make judgments about aspects of a child's reading ability that are not so easily discerned in group situations.

Individual or Group Diagnostic Tests

Diagnostic Reading Scales — CTB/McGraw Hill
Durrell Analysis of Reading Difficulty — Psychological Corporation
Gates McKillop Reading Diagnostic Test — Teachers College Press
Classroom Reading Inventory — William C. Brown
Sucher-Allred Reading Placement Inventory — The Economy Company
Burns and Roe Informal Reading Assessment — Houghton Mifflin Publishing Company
Standard Reading Inventory — Klamath Printing Company
Analytical Reading Inventory — Charles E. Merrill
Individualized Diagnostic Reading Inventory — Educators Publishing Service
Gilmore Oral Reading Test — Psychological Corporation
Slosson Oral Reading Test — Slosson Educational Publications
Informal reading inventories published for use with their own basal series

4. *Criterion Reference Tests.*

Increasingly, test publishing companies are creating tests known generally as "criterion referenced." The other standardized tests mentioned above are "norm referenced." In a norm referenced test, the scores derived are relative — that is, they show how a child's score compares with that of other children who have taken the test (the standardized group). A criterion referenced test is more closely aligned with an absolute measure — that is, we find out what skills a child does or does not possess regardless of what other children do. Such tests sometimes set certain standards of "mastery," however. For instance, a child must pass 3 of 5 items testing a certain skill in order to show that he has mastered the skill. The published tests could also be called analytic since they generally measure a large number of specific skill areas, a useful feature in program planning. Often, basal reading series include brief criterion measures to check a child's progress toward certain specified goals. Local schools can design their own criterion referenced tests which will measure progress toward the specific goals the school has set as its own. Commercially published criterion referenced tests and "kits" are available which contain pretests, post-tests and brief tests between to measure ongoing progress. Some of these also contain guides to all the major basal reading series to direct the teacher to appropriate text and workbook pages to strengthen needed skills.

Group Criterion Reference Tests

Score — The Riverside Publishing Company
Wisconsin Design for Reading Skills Development — Wisconsin Research and Development Center for Cognitive Learning
Fountain Valley Teacher Support System in Reading — Zweig Association
Prescriptive Reading Inventory — CTB/McGraw Hill

5. *Informal Measurement Techniques.*
There are other techniques which should be used for their value in adding additional useful data. While often lacking the statistical reliability and sophistication of standardized tests. Teacher-constructed tests can be geared specifically to the particular objectives of the local school system or classroom. They can be administered at any time, as often as indicated, without waiting for the regularly scheduled tests.

a. **Informal Reading Inventories.**
A popular assessment technique is the informal reading inventory. Unlike standardized tests, the informal inventory measures a child's performance without regard to the performance of others. Therefore, a more absolute rather than relative level, is obtained.

The reader is referred to the sources cited in the bibliography for a more detailed exposition of the rationale and construction of informal reading inventories. Briefly, an informal inventory consists of several paragraphs of graded difficulty. The child reads each paragraph aloud while the examiner records his errors and asks questions to check comprehension. Four levels important in reading instruction are established using this technique. The criteria for each level varies somewhat among those who advocate such techniques, but roughly they are as follows:

(1) Independent Level:
The student reads the words in the passage with 99 percent accuracy (99 of 100 words) and with 90 percent comprehension. The student's reading will also be expressive, fluent and reflect use of punctuation.

(2) Instructional Level:
The student at this level can read with no more than 5 uncorrected mispronunciations in 100 words (95 percent) and with at least 75 percent comprehension. The student will generally read expressively though more slowly than at the independent level.

(3) Frustration Level:
The student will read the material gaining little meaning. Mispronunciations will exceed 10 words of every 100 (less than 90 percent accuracy) and comprehension will measure about 50 percent. The material is too difficult when the reader has these characteristics.

(4) Listening Level:
The student can comprehend 75 percent of material read aloud by the teacher. Other terms are sometimes applied to this level — *hearing comprehension level, hearing capacity level* or the *reading potential level.*[1]

Several reading series have an informal reading inventory which accompanies the series. A teacher can construct his/her own informal reading inventory by selecting brief reading selections from a graded basal series which is not currently being used and formulating questions on these selections.

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[1] Mary Lynn Woods and Alden J. Moe, *Analytical Reading Inventory* (1977)

b. Other Informal Techniques:

(1) Teacher made tests.
To ascertain a child's reading abilities, simple tests can be constructed for word recognition (in isolation and in context) as well as for comprehension. In constructing an informal test, the key is the teacher's ability to isolate the particular skill he wants to evaluate and to place that skill in a hierarchy. Such skills, hierarchies and ideas for testing them may also be found in many of the listings in the bibliography at the end of this section.

Comprehension. Subskills of comprehension that can be measured are (a) finding the main idea of a paragraph, (b) determining the literal meaning of a passage, (c) recalling details, (d) making inferences. These subskills can be checked by having a child read a paragraph and then having the teacher ask pertinent questions to elicit responses requiring any of the above subskills.

Another technique used in many different forms has come to be known generally as the "cloze" procedure. It requires a student to fill in a blank with a missing word, letter or phrase, thereby achieving "closure."

The cloze procedure can be used both as a test of comprehension and as a means of emphasizing the use of context in decoding new words by one of several types of items.

A paragraph from the child's text may be used, with the teacher replacing every fifth or seventh (or some other number) word with a blank. The student reads the paragraph, filling in the blanks with the correct words. Several variations of this technique include:

(a) The bird ___________ up into the tree.

In this example, the child may fill in any of several words, any of which could be correct as long as the "sense" of the sentence is preserved.

(b) The bird ___________ up into the tree. Underline the word which best completes the sentence.

1. flew 2. climbed 3. jumped 4. sang

In this example, using a multiple choice approach, only one response is correct, but possible answers are provided, narrowing the range and making the item easier.

(c) The bird ___________ up into the tree. Underline the word which best completes the sentence.

1. flew 2. flue

This approach can test a child's spelling ability and word recognition.

(d) The bird f___________ up into the tree. Underline the word which best completes the sentence.

1. frog 2. sang 3. flew 4. glided

The child is given choices but selects a word on the basis of context and the first letter. It may also be used without the multiple choice responses listed at all.

(e) The bird _ _ _ _ up into the tree.

This adaptation gives clues as to how many letters the word contains. Another technique similar to the above (in that it uses words in context) is one in which the child is given a passage in which several words are used incorrectly. He proofreads the passage, crosses out the incorrect word and substitutes the proper word. The teacher's "error" may be an incorrect spelling or a word which makes no sense in the context.

Word Recognition. To check this skill, a standard word list may be used with the child supplying a synonym or antonym or using the word appropriately in a sentence. Moe's high frequency word and noun lists are included in the word recognition section of this guide. (See section IV chapter 10).

Brief tests of phonics or other skills can be constructed.

For example:

Short vowel sounds: "Draw a line under the word I say."

1. big 2. bag 3. beg 4. bug

Consonant blends: "Draw a line under the word I say."

1. bake 2. rake 3. drake 4. brake

(2) Checklists.
It is useful to keep such lists readily at hand for frequent assessment of students' mastery of skills. Several basal series have accompanying skills checklists available. Lists are frequently found in reading publications. A teacher may design his or her own from the set of objectives being used in the school or corporation. The following samples is but one example of a format.

Reading Skills
CHECKLIST

Pupil ______________________________ School ______________________________

Level or Grade____________________

+ Competency or Mastery
−Not mastered

	Date of Assessment	Progress	Progress	Progress	Date of Mastery
Auditory Discrimination					
General Sounds					
Rhyming Words					
Visual Discrimination					
Pictures/shapes					
Letter forms					
Words					
Auditory-Visual Perception					
Sight words					
Consonants — Initial					
Medial					
Final					
Short vowels					
Long vowels — final e					
open syllable					
Vowel — digraphs					
diphthongs					
Structural Analysis					
Plurals — s or es					
ending in y					
Compound Words					
Contractions					

+ Competency or Mastery
−Not mastered

	Date of Assessment	Progress	Progress	Progress	Date of Mastery
Suffixes					
Prefixes					
Possessives — Singular					
Plural					

(3) **Systematic Teacher Observation.**
In order to add a degree of reliability to observing, a teacher might do well to predetermine what is to be observed. Having an outline (a framework for recording impressions) and a planned observation routine assures that the subject will be seen in similar circumstances during a sequence of observations.

(4) **Textbook Mastery Tests.**
Many teachers incorporate these informal measures in their assessment plan. The tests are strategically placed in basals and can yield relevant data at interim points in the sequence of instruction.

3 Reading Potential

Once it has been determined at what level a child is reading, it is helpful to arrive at a close approximation of his reading potential to determine whether he can do better. This is as true for a child reading above his grade placement level as for the child who is reading below his placement level. The reading potential of a given child may be determined by several methods:

A. PROCEDURES FOR ESTIMATING READING EXPECTANCY (OR POTENTIAL).
Most procedures for estimating reading potential are based upon intelligence. The assumption is that a student should be able to read at the grade level appropriate to his mental age. A further assumption is added that the mental age is a test score derived from a test which does not require reading ability. Since most group achievement tests require some reading skill, this usually implies the use of an individual intelligence test, particularly one which does not emphasize a facility with the English language or reading ability.

1. *Harris Formulas*[1]

a. $$\frac{2 \times \text{mental age} + \text{chronological age}}{3} = \text{Reading Expectancy Age}$$

b. $$\text{Reading Expectancy Age} - 5.2 = \text{Expectancy Grade Equivalent}$$

The Harris formulas are based on the idea that a child's Mental Age generally is a good indication of a child's reading potential. Some weight is given to chronological age, but the major emphasis is on Mental Age. The Expectancy Grade Equivalent is a device to convert the Reading Expectancy Age to an approximation of the child's grade level equivalent score. It is based on the premise that the average child is 6.2 years of age at first grade entry (6.2 − 5.2 = 1.0, Expectancy Grade Equivalent).

2. *The Bond-Tinker Formula*[2]

$$\text{Reading Expectancy} = \text{years in school} \times \frac{\text{IQ}}{100} + 1.0$$

In this formula, the basic premise is that a child should generally be expected to have the potential to read at a level commensurate with his Mental Age. In addition, however, this formula takes into account the number of years of formal reading instruction the child has had. When using the formula, do not count nursery or kindergarten experience as "years in school," but do include any grades repeated by the child. Thus, a child who has spent three years in school (he is now entering fourth grade) and who has an IQ of 90 would be expected to be reading at a 3.7 grade level ($3 \times .90 + 1.0 = 3.7$).

3. *Tests of Listening Comprehension.*
The "listening level" (also called Auding Level), as determined by an informal reading inventory or by a formal or informal test, refers to the child's ability to understand what is read to him. This level can be thought of as the level at which a child could potentially read if he possessed the necessary skills.

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[1] Albert J. Harris, *How to Increase Reading Ability.* (7th ed.; New York: David McKay Company, 1980).

[2] Guy L. Bond, Miles A. Tinker, and Barbara B. Wasson, *Reading Difficulties: Their Diagnosis and Correction* (Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice Hall, 1979), pg. 62.

It should be kept clearly in mind that what is being discussed here is "potential" which is not necessarily fully realized. Certain children are "penalized" by one formula or another if the results are taken too literally. For instance, a bright child entering school for the first time might have an expectancy level of second or third grade, although he has not yet begun formal instruction. Also, some slower children with IQs below average might be expected to achieve at a higher level than possible because they have been in school several years but have repeated one or more grades. As with the results of other techniques and tests, the widest possible range of data should be used to rule out such errors.

The advisability of using the concept of "reading potential" is questionable because of the errors which can be made. There is always the danger of the teacher expecting less and, as a result, receiving less from a child who attains a low expectancy score. Conversely, one might expect too much and apply too much pressure to the child who scores high. Overall, it is probably worthwhile to use such expectancy levels, particularly those obtained by informal listening comprehension tests, as a beginning guide. The teacher should be ready to abandon such expectancy scores when his daily work with the child clearly demonstrates that they are inaccurate.

4 Survey of Personnel

Any assessment of needs in reading should include strengths and weaknesses, and one of the strengths may well be the existing personnel. By reviewing transcripts of college training, one may find classroom teachers on the present staff who have had a great deal of training and experience in reading. These persons should certainly be included in the list of available resources when the time comes to plan a new reading program. It is not necessary to remove them from the classroom, but perhaps part of their time could be devoted to supervising, assisting or training other classroom teachers in reading methods. If a team teaching or "Joplin Plan" kind of arrangement is planned, these teachers may become team leaders or otherwise take a large part of the responsibility for the reading program.

All of the present teaching staff should be examined (by some kind of self-survey) to ascertain the various levels of abilities, training, interest in and attitudes toward the teaching of reading. From this kind of survey, one will be able to see what kind of inservice (or college) training will be needed to implement a successful program.

Survey the available reading personnel (supervisors, remedial reading teachers and reading specialists of various kinds) to determine their training, experience and particular areas of expertise.

In addition to the persons directly related to the reading program, it would be wise also to include in a survey any other personnel, including psychologists, guidance counselors, social workers and librarians, who could have special areas of expertise to offer to the program. Are there a sufficient number of such personnel? Have they been utilized as effectively as they might? How can their impact be maximized?

Other specialists or reading resources, including clinics, private practitioners and education departments or nearby universities, should be included as places to refer to as well as resources from which to draw for inservice training.

The availability of financial resources, including "Title" programs, the regular school budget, private foundations, service clubs and organizations and the PTA should also be listed. If an expensive program is contemplated, these additional sources of funds could be considered.

A thorough assessment of needs is essential from time to time in any kind of curriculum planning. Reading programs should not be planned in a piecemeal fashion or by adding innovations which appear to be "the answer." No one program will be effective for all children in all schools. A school may find, after its assessment, that no changes are needed. Another school may find that changes are needed, but that all of the necessary ingredients are already present or easily available. A third school may decide that extensive and expensive changes are indicated, and the needs assessment provides a basis for documenting such needs for presentation to the school board or an application for various "Title" or private foundation funds.

The essential consideration in reading (as with other educational programming) is an open mind in planning. Program planning should follow from the needs identified in the needs assessment. One does not decide what kind of program will be operated before gathering documentation to justify that particular program.

The process of needs assessment should be as extensive as the school system (or individual school) can reasonably accomplish. It need not be severely time consuming if all teachers and administrators are involved and areas of responsibility are assigned.

5 Choosing and Using Tests

Needs assessment is more revealing if the most appropriate strategies and instruments are utilized in gathering data. The time and money invested by schools in selecting tests warrants additional attention given to this consideration.

The selection of various kinds of tests depends on the purpose for testing. A test which does not provide the information sought is not worth using, regardless of its statistical accuracy. Most tests have both assets and liabilities. It is up to the consumer of test information to understand both of these aspects as much as it is up to the one who chooses, administers, scores or interprets the tests.

Informal tests and evaluation procedures have already have been discussed, therefore, we will now turn our attention to the selection of formal, published tests. To that point, it might be worthwhile to discuss briefly the characteristics of standardized tests and their relative merits as assessment tools.

Standardized tests have been condemned by many today while at the same time others are calling for increased use of tests as indicators of the state of education in the nation's schools and the fitness of high school graduates to enter the work force.

Standardized tests are those in which procedures, test materials and scoring are fixed precisely so that duplication is possible at varying times and places. For the most part, however, the term "standardized test" has come to signify norm-referenced achievement tests in the minds of most people. There are certainly good reasons for using norm-referenced standardized tests. Most are written and published by test companies specializing in them. For that reason, the tests are usually meticulously prepared by experts in the area of tests and measurements and experts in the particular subject matter field represented. They are extensively field-tested and subjected to rigorous technical scrutiny. Close attention is paid to all aspects of test objectivity and the avoidance of various kinds of bias. Technically, the tests are as good as can be developed.

All evaluation necessarily involves judgment. That judgment may be normative — that is, we may want to know how much better or worse one student's performance is when compared to that of other students — or it can be a criterion judgment, in which case we want to know if the performance demonstrated mastery of a specific objective of performance.

There has been much discussion recently as to the relative merits of criterion-referenced and nationally norm-referenced tests for the measurement of the outcomes of an educational program. Essentially the two types of tests cannot be differentiated one from the other by looking at the test or examining the individual test items. As a matter of fact, most of the standardized norm-referenced achievement tests developed by the major test publishers in the last few years have been both norm-referenced and criterion-referenced. It is in the interpretation of test results that the basic difference between criterion- and norm-referenced tests is found.

In the case of a norm-referenced test, the score of an individual or group is interpreted in relation to scores attained by the members of the group on which the test was normed. For example, we may say that a student scored better than 63% of the group or that he achieved a grade equivalent score of 3.4. In the case of a criterion-referenced test, the score of the individual or group is interpreted in relation to performance with respect to the test criterion. The interpretation of a student's score on a particular criterion-referenced test is made in terms of a comparison against an absolute standard such as percentage of items correct or in terms of expected behavior.

Standardized norm-referenced tests have been and still are the most widely used means of measuring growth or gain in achievement. While most of the published standardized tests measure achievement in the various subject areas quite well, the tests do vary among themselves as to the content covered and the relative emphasis placed on the content. Because of this, one test may be a more valid measure than another for a particular program. This can only be determined locally by carefully comparing test content with program content.

PROCEDURES FOR EVALUATING AND SELECTING STANDARDIZED TESTS

Once it has been decided that a standardized test is going to be used as a part of the total evaluation system, one is faced with the task of choosing among the many available on the market.

There are many sources of information on tests available which may be consulted in this process. The *Mental Measurement Yearbooks* issued every six or seven years and edited by O.K. Buros are a common and reliable source of critical reviews and listings of research done on each test in print in the United States. The *CSE Yearbook* published by the Center for the Study of Evaluation at UCLA is another source of basic information about tests available. A third source which should be in the library of everyone who chooses or uses tests is the *Standards for Educational and Psychological Tests* published by the American Psychological Association. This publication does not list tests available, but lists desirable or essential qualities which good tests and test manuals should possess. It also prescribes standards for use of the tests and test results which are important for all persons who choose, administer, or use the results of tests. This, of course, includes just about everyone in the school setting. Checklists to use in evaluating tests can be referred to in *Essentials of Psychological Testing* by Lee J. Cronbach (New York, NY: Harper and Row, 1960); and *Toward Better Reading* by George D. Spache (Champaign, IL: Garrard Publishing Company, 1963).

Once the choice of a test has been narrowed down to a few by the above process, the committee or persons responsible for the selection of tests should order speciment sets from publishers. Careful examination of the manuals, including technical manuals, the test booklets themselves and other material the publisher might make available help to determine whether this test is the best one for the purpose.

The Rating Scale which follows is intended as a guide for choosing among several standardized tests once the list has been narrowed down to a few. The standards are listed in the following order on the rating scale.

Validity

Validity is the technical characteristic of vital importance to any measurement technique. In essence, it refers to the truthfulness of a test. That is, validity refers to the degree of trust one can place on the results of a test. Because this characteristic is so vital, it is discussed in some detail following the scale.

Reliability

Reliability refers to the consistency with which a test measures whatever it measures. It is discussed in more detail following the rating scale.

Norms

Generally, we are concerned with norms which match the children we are testing. For instance, some tests use nationwide samples of students who are expected to be representative of all of the students in the country. Some tests have norms for Title I children or parochial school children. Your students may be significantly different in certain ways from the national norm. You may or may not be concerned with the recency of norming or the use of empirical norms dates (explained on the rating scale).

Test Levels

There may be concerns about the levels of the test available (as explained on the rating scale). Some tests have been normed on more than one grade level and might be used for out-of-level testing (e.g., using a third grade test for an atypical "slow" fourth grade).

Test Scores

These are also defined on the rating scale. For particular purposes (for example: EIP*) you may want a particular kind of score (for example: stanines). If tests are machine scored commercially, almost any kind of score can be requested. (See Chapter II, p. 19 for score definitions). For a stanine — percentile — normal curve equivalent score conversion table, see Appendices A and B.

Scoring Consideration

This consideration is adequately covered on the rating scale.

Administration Consideration

Administration concerns are also covered on the rating scale.

Usability

Foremost in the minds of most school people is the question of cost. This is something which can only be resolved locally. The use of one test for several purposes (for example EIP and Chapter I and local program evaluation) should be encouraged. The durability and re-usability of components are important considerations.

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*EIP means Educational Improvement Program

RATING SCALE FOR STANDARDIZED TESTS*

Instructions: List the tests under consideration along the top of the chart below. Then respond to each question using the following codes:

1 — Good
2 — Fair
3 — Questionable
4 — Weak
5 — Unsatisfactory

	Name of Test			
A. VALIDITY (Use completed "Assessing Content Validity" chart to answer these questions.)				
1. Do the test items measure at least 75% of the objectives of the program? (There should be at least 3 items per objective.)				
2. Do at least 50% of the test items directly measure the objectives of the program? (If no, stop rating that test.)				
3. Does the test reflect the relative emphases of the program?				
4. Is the test free of irrelevant features?				
(Such as reading level of directions and non-reading subtests; regional, cultural and sex biases; other irrelevant features.)				
B. RELIABILITY				
1. Is the reliability of the test sufficiently high? ($r_{xx} \geq .85$)				
C. NORMS				
1. Are schools, school districts or cities of your size, geographic region and urbanism included in the norms sample?				

***From Basic Skills Notes, Basic Skills National Technical Assistance Consortium, 1978.**

	Name of Test			
C. NORMS (continued)				
2. Have norms been developed in a way which makes them representative of the population they claim to represent?				
3. Has the test been normed within the last ten years?				
4. Do the *empirical** norms dates correspond to the times when you intend to test?				
D. TEST LEVELS				
1. Are test levels sufficiently broad that the same level may be administered for both pre- and post-tests?				
2. Are test levels available at the functional level of all students?				
E. TEST SCORES				
1. Are scores reported as NCEs or percentile equivalents?				
2. If out-of-level testing is contemplated, are expanded scale scores available?				
3. Are other scores available which meet local district reporting needs?				
F. SCORING CONSIDERATIONS				
1. Are the types of score reporting services available that the local district desires (e.g., individual reports, class reports)?				
2. If out-of-level testing is done, can the scoring service provide in-level percentiles?				

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*Note: *Empirical* norms dates are dates the publisher actually administered the tests to the standardization sample.

	Name of Test			
3. If machine scoring is not used, can teachers hand score the tests and use the norms tables with a minimal degree of training?				
G. ADMINISTRATION CONSIDERATIONS 1. Can teachers administer the tests with minimal training?				
2. Does the amount of time required to administer the test (or subtests) meet the school schedule?				
3. Is the method of administration (group vs. individual) appropriate?				
H. USABILITY 1. Does the cost of the test fall within budgetary limitation?				
2. Is the layout of the test (e.g., number of items per page, print size) appropriate?				
3. Does the test fit in with other district needs?				
4. Can test booklets be purchased separately for each subtest?				

FURTHER CONSIDERATIONS OF VALIDITY AND RELIABILITY

Validity is usually defined as the extent to which a test measures what it is supposed to or does the job it was used to do. No test is valid in and of itself. A test can only be valid for a particular application. The manner in which a test is used, the way it is administered, the sequence in which it is used in the total process, the use of the scores and norms are all factors which can affect validity. Validity is not some general pervasive characteristic that a test "has." Rather, the validity of any test is likely to be specific on the job it is intended to do. The important point to be kept in mind is, "Does this test measure what I want to measure in an accurate way?" The test manual (if you are using a standardized test) will usually discuss the validity of the test for particular uses. That discussion will provide you with important information to guide you in deciding whether the test might be useful in your situation. A test manual, however, cannot tell you that the test is valid for your use.

The *Standards for Educational and Psychological Tests* discusses three types of validity. The type of validity we are most concerned with in the evaluation of reading programs is *content validity.* Content validity may be defined as the degree to which the test content represents a balanced and adequate sampling of program outcomes. Since the advent of the Educational Improvement Program (EIP) in Indiana in 1978, two types of validity have been discussed more frequently. These are *instructional validity* and *curricular validity.* In some cases it has been mistakenly assumed that these were new concepts or new kinds of validity. Actually, they are additional names for content validity. *Curricular validity* refers to the match between the content measured by the test and the content of the curriculum. Ideally, of course, this match should be one to one. That is, if the test does not measure what is in your curriculum, it is not valid for your purposes. Similarly, the test must also measure what you are teaching in the way you are teaching it in order to have *instructional validity.* While both of these concepts appear to be self evident, they are not always fully considered by test users. For instance, a standardized test may test spelling by presenting a multiple choice item with four alternative spellings of a word, only one of which is correct. The child is to choose the correct spelling. This may not be the way spelling is taught in the classroom and the instructional validity of this item could be in doubt although the word in question may be in the curriculum, implying curricular validity.

RELIABILITY

Reliability refers to the extent to which a test is consistent in measuring what it measures. It is necessary for a test to be reliable in order to be valid. A test which gives inconsistent results cannot be depended upon for use in situations where we are making decisions about children. A test can be reliable without being valid. It may measure whatever it measures in a consistent fashion without measuring what you want to have measured.

While considerable space and attention has been directed in this chapter to the choice and use of tests of student achievement, it cannot be overemphasized that student test scores are only one indication of the effectiveness of a school reading program. Educators charged with the responsibility for evaluating school reading programs are well advised to consider all aspects of the setting, the curriculum, the teachers, the materials, the curricular emphasis as well as student test scores in the overall reading program. Such affective areas as student enthusiasm, use of reading as a tool in content areas, use of reading as recreation, etc., are important areas to be considered and should not be regarded as peripheral. The affective dimension of reading is covered in Section V chapters 14-18 in this guide.

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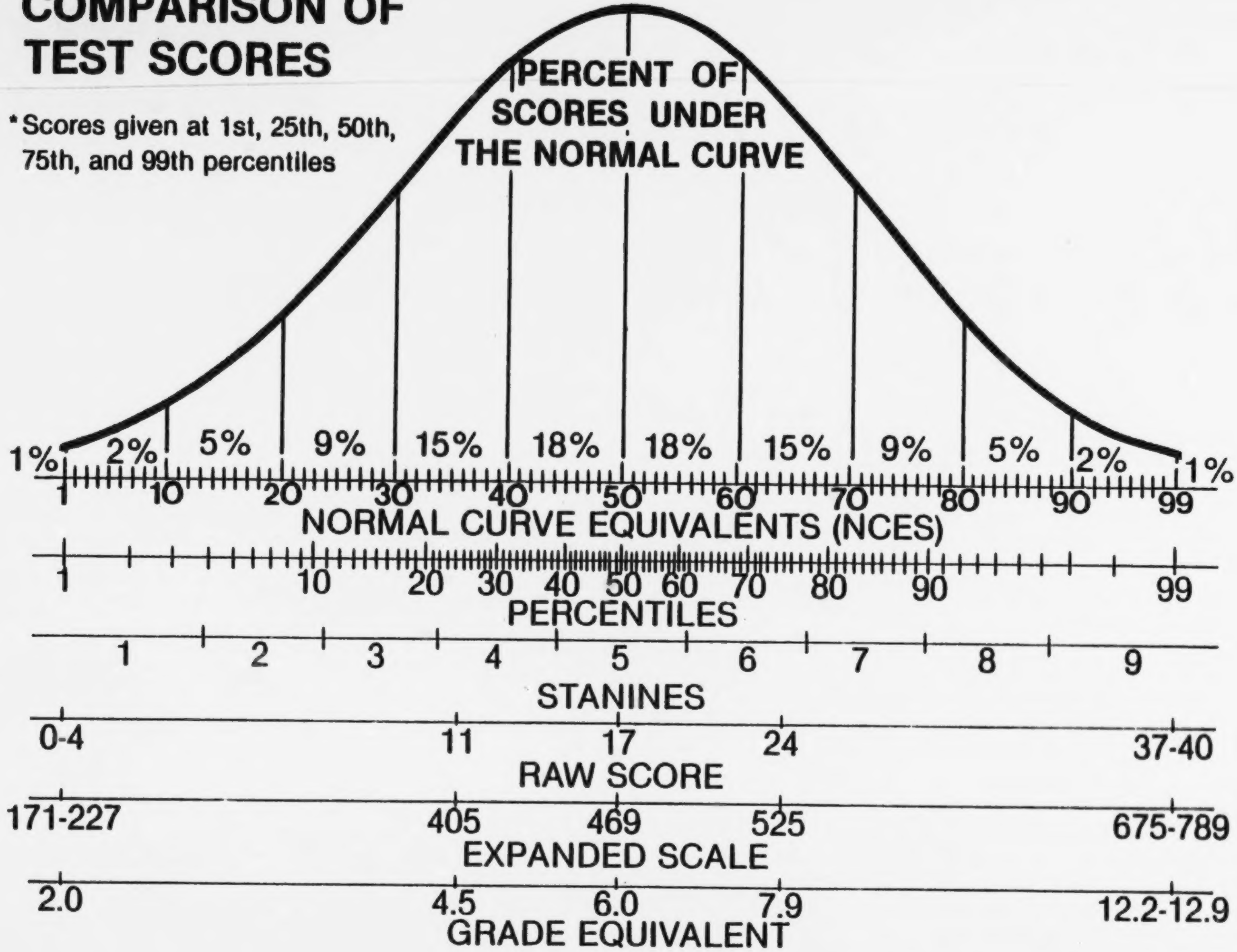
APPENDIX A

PERCENTILE TO NORMAL CURVE EQUIVALENT TO STANINE CONVERSION TABLE

%	NCE	STANINE	%	NCE	STANINE	%	NCE	STANINE
1	1.0	1	41	45.2	5	71	61.7	6
2	6.7	1	42	45.8	5	72	62.3	6
3	10.4	1	43	46.3	5	73	62.9	6
4	13.1	1	44	46.8	5	74	63.5	6
5	15.4	2	45	47.4	5	75	64.2	6
6	17.3	2	46	47.9	5	76	64.9	6
7	18.9	2	47	48.4	5	77	65.6	6
8	20.4	2	48	48.9	5	78	66.3	7
9	21.8	2	49	49.5	5	79	67.0	7
10	23.0	2	50	50.0	5	80	67.7	7
11	24.2	3	51	50.5	5	81	68.5	7
12	25.3	3	52	51.1	5	82	69.3	7
13	26.3	3	53	51.6	5	83	70.1	7
14	27.2	3	54	52.1	5	84	70.9	7
15	28.2	3	55	52.6	5	85	71.8	7
16	29.1	3	56	53.2	5	86	72.8	7
17	29.9	3	57	53.7	5	87	73.7	7
18	30.7	3	58	54.2	5	88	74.7	7
19	31.5	3	59	54.8	5	89	75.8	7
20	32.3	3	60	55.3	6	90	77.0	8
21	33.0	3	61	55.9	6	91	78.2	8
22	33.7	3	62	56.4	6	92	79.6	8
23	34.4	4	63	57.0	6	93	81.1	8
24	35.1	4	64	57.5	6	94	82.7	8
25	35.8	4	65	58.1	6	95	84.6	8
26	36.5	4	66	58.7	6	96	86.9	9
27	37.1	4	67	59.3	6	97	89.6	9
28	37.7	4	68	59.9	6	98	93.3	9
29	38.3	4	69	60.4	6	99	99.0	9
30	39.0	4	70	61.0	6			
31	39.6	4						
32	40.1	4						
33	40.7	4						
34	41.3	4						
35	41.9	4						
36	42.5	4						
37	43.0	4						
38	43.6	4						
39	44.1	4						
40	44.7	4						

COMPARISON OF TEST SCORES

*Scores given at 1st, 25th, 50th, 75th, and 99th percentiles



APPENDIX B

MAJOR TEST PUBLISHING COMPANIES

Addison-Wesley Publishing Company, Inc., 2725 Sand Hill Road, Menlo Park, CA 95025, Cooperative Tests and Services.

American Guidance Service, Inc., Publishers Building, Circle Pines, MN 55014.

CTB/McGraw Hill, Del Monte Research Park, Monterey, CA 93940.

The Psychological Corporation-Harcourt Brace Jovanovich, 757 Third Avenue, New York, NY 10017.

Riverside Publishing Company (Division of Houghton Mifflin), 8420 Bryn Mawr, Chicago, IL 60631.

Scholastic Testing Service, Inc., 480 Meyer Road, Bensenville, IL 60106.

Science Research Associates, Inc., 155 North Wacker Drive, Chicago, IL 60606.

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Section III
Early Reading Experiences

Chapter 6
Enhancing Development of the Young Child

Chapter 7
Auditory Discrimination, Visual Discrimination and Letter Identification

Chapter 8
Early Literary Experiences

6 Enhancing Development of the Young Child

In designing a program to enhance the education of the young child, enriching experiences in the areas of affective, cognitive, and psychomotor development should be an integral part. Through awareness of child development and interest in the child's natural curiosity and creative abilities, teachers can serve as valuable facilitators of the child's learning opportunities.

A. AFFECTIVE DEVELOPMENT. Self concept is one of the most important aspects of affective development. One's self concept consists of three fundamental areas: (1) perception of self; (2) interpretation of oneself in relationships with other people; and (3) interaction with one's environment. These are mutually interdependent areas. Growth in any one of these areas is often dependent upon development in each of the other areas. Development is not achieved in chronological sequence, but progresses simultaneously.

The teacher can establish a climate for affective development by:

- Providing opportunities for the child to succeed in both independent and cooperative endeavors.
- Leading the child to become an inner-directed individual.
- Encouraging the child to have pride in his own accomplishments.
- Helping the child to recognize and appreciate the accomplishments of others.
- Helping the child to adapt to variations within the learning environment.

Having open communication skills is an important part of establishing meaningful relationships with other people. It is a fairly complex part of growth, in which one of the major tasks is learning to disagree without being disagreeable.

Learning ways to enjoy and to accept one's environment is another aspect important in self concept development. People of all ages cope better if they are aware of their perimeters and flexibility within any given environment.

1. *Selected Activities.*
The following activities are designed for the area of affective development.

a. **Self Portrait.**
Each child makes a picture of himself. It can be displayed with others on a bulletin board or placed in a personal notebook or folder.

b. **Story Dictation.**
Each child dictates an imaginary or real-life story to an adult (teacher, parent, or volunteer). The story may be put on a tape recorder or shared by an adult with other classmates.

c. **Personal Space.**
Each child is asked to designate an area of the classroom for his personal space for a short period of time. The teacher may suggest a focus of the child's thinking or allow the child complete freedom of choice for a brief daydreaming time.

d. **Twosomes.**
Pairs of children are seated facing one another in scattered groups throughout the room. The teacher suggests topics for brief discussions. Listening and sharing skills are encouraged.

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e. **Coping.**
The leader shares a brief situation and asks each child to consider what action she/he would take if confronted with such a problem.

B. COGNITIVE DEVELOPMENT. Cognitive or intellectual development of the young child involves establishment of personal learning styles and establishment of language skills. Teacher awareness of each child's personal experiences and willingness to provide diverse classroom learning opportunities can play a major role in the child's cognitive development.

The teacher can establish a climate for cognitive development by:

- Making use of every opportunity to encourage thinking.
- Encouraging the child to ask questions and to seek additional information related to projects undertaken.
- Providing worthwhile first-hand experiences.
- Developing a setting which arouses interest in learning.
- Challenging the child through materials that are within his/her range and ability.

Language development can be supported through opportunities for children to listen with a purpose and to interact with others about ideas, feelings, and experiences.

1. *Selected Activities.*
The following activities are suggested for cognitive development.

a. **Rhyming Match.**
The leader says a word and each child may volunteer to provide a rhyming word for the original word. When the leader perceives that known choices for the word are nearing exhaustion, another word is provided and the process is repeated.

b. **Guess-A-Use.**
A piece of a blender or some other object is placed on a table where each person can see it. Questions which can be answered by one word are posed by individual students until the object has been identified.

c. **Alternatives.**
Twelve or more circles are drawn on a sheet of paper. Each child is asked to draw a different idea in each of the circles. A straight or curved line could be provided for the initial mark. This encourages diverse thinking.

d. **Human Paragraph.**
The leader suggests a topic. Each classmate may provide a statement which relates to the topic until a variety of aspects of the topic have been included. Then a new topic may be generated.

e. **Viable Reasons.**
The root of a sentence is provided, such as, "I would like to walk (run, jump, type, etc.), but..." Viable reasons are given by classmates. The process may be repeated for several turns, if desired.

C. **PSYCHOMOTOR DEVELOPMENT.** Psychomotor development includes gross and fine motor physical skill acquisition. Areas of sensory development (spatial awareness, balance and rhythm, kinesthetic and tactile recognition, and left and right orientation) are a part of psychomotor development also.

Teachers can establish a climate for psychomotor development by:

- Providing activities and games which allow large muscle usage.
- Providing activities and games which allow small muscle usage.
- Encouraging the child to utilize coordination skills in a variety of situations.
- Making use of left-to-right focus in multiple activities.
- Providing activities which incorporate various forms of patterning.

1. *Selected Activities.*
For young children, the following activities are suggested for psychomotor development.

a. **Fingerpainting Without Paint.**
Children are asked to make shapes, letters, or numbers in a specified area. They may "write" in the air space in front of them or on a blank piece of paper on a desk. The leader calls out directions and gives the others time to fulfill one direction before proceeding to the next.

b. **Back Writing.**
Pairs of children are spaced about the room. Each child forms a shape, letter or number on the back of the other partner. The partner not writing, is given the opportunity to guess what was written. A series of shapes, letters or numbers may be challenging for some children.

c. **Take-A-Breath.**
The teacher counts a regular cadence for breathing exercises. "Inhale-2-3-4, hold-2-3-4, exhale-2-3-4." The pace may be varied from fast to slow or slow to fast, if desired. This activity may be used either to generate a livelier atmosphere or a more quieting atmosphere, when desired.

d. **Left-To-Right.**
The leader asks the group to imagine some small creature or object (an ant or penny, for example) placed to the left of his body. The child is asked to visually follow the imagined object from left to right until it has progressed beyond where it can be "seen."

e. **Shape And More Shapes.**
Each child is given a set of circles, triangles, and squares. The leader suggests a pattern in which the shapes should be placed and then each child tries to follow that direction. For example, "place two squares, one circle, and three triangles in one row."

7 Auditory Discrimination, Visual Discrimination and Letter Identification

A. AUDITORY DISCRIMINATION. The ability to discern differences between or among the phonemes of a language is known as auditory discrimination. Skills under the heading of auditory discrimination include those dealing with:

- Initial consonant sounds
- Final consonant sounds
- Medial consonant sounds
- Beginning vowel sounds
- Medial vowel sounds
- Blending
- Rhyming

Normally, children acquire the ability to discriminate among similar sounds at a very early age. The ability to auditorily discriminate among sounds is an essential prerequisite before the student is able to use phonics; therefore, the beginning reading program should provide sufficient experience to insure that the child develops proficiency in auditory discrimination.

1. *Assessment.*

The assessment of gross auditory discrimination skills may be accomplished by asking the child to tell whether two spoken words are the same or different. For example, the teacher may ask if "boy" and "jungle" or "candy" and "carriage" or "booklet" and "booklet" are the same or different. The teacher may continue such activities to determine if the child can make more subtle distinctions as would be required with "band" and "hand" or "boy" and "bay" or even "men" and "man." Most of the commonly used reading readiness tests contain one or more subtests on auditory discrimination.

2. *Special Skills.*

Because rhyming is so easy to teach through the use of nursery rhymes, it is taught early. However, as an aid to learning the phonics skills necessary to decode words, the ability to make discriminations in the initial position of words is more important. While a variety of auditory discrimination activities are recommended, it is helpful for the teacher to stress those that deal with initial sounds.

3. *Selected Activities.*

To provide practice in auditory discrimination activities, the teacher may wish to use some of the following exercises:

a. **Directions.**

When dismissing students for recess or lunch, give directions which provide practice in discriminating between like and unlike sounds. For example, the teacher might say, "All students whose names begin like Mary may line up."

b. **Milk carton sounds.**

Staple shut the top of a half-gallon milk carton and cut two holes in one side, one above the other. The child holds the milk carton so that one hole is over his ear and the other near his mouth. Any sounds or words he says will be amplified and very isolated from external noises.

c. **Rhyming word puzzle.**
Divide the chalkboard or gameboard into squares. In each square, illustrate two rhyming words, labeling one picture in each square. Have the child fill in the rhyming word illustrated by the other picture.

d. **Stop & Go.**
Each student is given a red stop sign made from construction paper. A certain letter sound is designated before the start of each game. The children are to hold up their stop signs when they hear the sound in the words pronounced by the teacher.

e. **Thumbs up.**
Using a series of sets of words which sound the same or nearly the same, ask the children to indicate by "thumbs up" that the two words are exactly the same word and by "thumbs down" that the words do not sound the same.

B. VISUAL DISCRIMINATION. The ability to distinguish between or among visual patterns is known as visual discrimination.

1. *Letters and Words.*
The best types of visual discrimination exercises for children in the early reading stages are those which deal directly with letters and words since, in the reading act, the discriminations must be made among letters and words. Exercises which require the matching of letters or words are recommended and are easy to construct. Similarly, exercises which require the identification of a letter or word that is different from the others in a group are also good.

2. *Reversals.*
In the early learning of letters and words, it is not uncommon for a child to mistake *b* and *d*. And, in the writing of young children, words often appear incorrect because the child has difficulty discriminating among some of the visually similar letters.

Reversals in reading and writing are not uncommon through grade two. If they persist beyond the second grade, the teacher may wish to consider identifying the letters which are often confused and to prescribe corrective exercises.

3. *Selected Activities.*
Many reading readiness exercises may be provided in visual discrimination. Some of the exercises teachers may wish to use in the classroom are:

a. **Matching words.**
Separate two sets of cards containing several pairs into two decks, placing one card of each pair in each deck. Spread one deck of cards face up on the table so that each card can be seen. The second deck of cards is placed in one pile, face down on the table. The child turns up one by one the cards from this pile and matches them with an up-turned card.

b. **Same or different.**
Cut out four copies of each letter of the alphabet using different colors for each letter. Paste four different letters along the edge of a large card. The remaining letters are pasted on smaller square cards. The children are to match the letters on the small cards with the letters on the large card.

c. **Sentence scanning.**
Have pupils scan sentences to find all the words that begin with the same letter. This activity can be modified by having children scan short paragraphs to find words that are the same.

d. **Mix and match.**
Prepare a sheet listing two parallel columns of words in which the same words are used but in different order. The students may draw lines connecting like words in the two columns.

e. **Seek.**
To provide practice in identification of likenesses and differences in letters of the alphabet, write a letter on the left hand side of the paper. Write several letters beside it, one of which is the same. The child's task is to look at the first letter in each row and then find another one just like it and draw a circle around it. Words may be used instead of single letters.

f. **Letter matching.**
Construct several sets of letter flash cards and provide each child with a set containing five to 10 letters. The teacher exposes a card for a few seconds and then removes it. The student must then select a matching card from his set.

C. LETTER IDENTIFICATION. It is important that students know most of the names of the letters of the alphabet before instruction in the word recognition skills is begun. When students can identify letters, the teacher may call attention to distinctive features of words by naming the letters. For example, it is easier to discuss the differences between the words *grandmother* and *grandfather* if students know the names of the letters *m, f, o* and *a*. Futhermore, the learning of sound-letter relationships (phonics) is enhanced when students know the written referent of a spoken letter.

1. *Sequence.*
The alphabetical order may be as appropriate as any other sequence. Children have little difficulty learning the "ABC Song," which may help them learn the letter names. For the child who enters school with no knowledge of letter names, the easiest letters to learn are the letters which compose his name, and the teacher may wish to teach those letters first.

2. *Selected Activities.*
To provide practice in recognition of letter names the following activities are suggested:

a. **Dot-to-dot with letters.**
Give each child a picture outlined in letters of the alphabet. He must connect the letters in alphabetical order so that the picture can be completed.

b. **Moon and stars.**
Make a large moon on which all of the capital letters have been printed. Underneath, make 26 stars and print one lower case letter on each. Students match the capital letters on the moon with the corresponding stars by attaching yarn from letter to letter.

c. **Match game.**
Make several sets of alphabet cards, each containing a single letter. Each child is dealt some cards, which are placed face down in front of him/her. Each player turns up a card at the same time, and if his matches one of the others, he must say "match." He then says the letter and gets the other person's card. The player with the most cards at the end of the game is the winner.

d. **Throw away.**
Make a set of cards, each containing a letter of the alphabet. Deal five cards to each player. When the teacher says a letter name, each student checks to see whether he/she has a card with that letter written on it. If he does, he may discard that card in the throw away pile. The first person to get rid of all his cards wins.

e. **Alphabet relay.**
Divide the class into two teams and ask one child from each team to come to the front of the room. Then, show a card containing a letter of the alphabet. The first child who says the name of the letter wins a point for the team.

f. **Tic-tac-know.**
Divide a square into nine blocks and write a letter in each small block. The child closes his/her eyes, and the teacher or a friend moves his/her finger in any direction over the letters, coming to rest on one letter as the child recites "Tic-tac-know, there I go." He then opens his eyes and names the letter his finger lands on.

g. **Checkers.**
Prepare a checkerboard with every other square filled in with a letter. Place the checkers on the board as for a regular game of checkers. The regular rules for checkers are followed, but the student must also name the letter in the space he/she intends to move to.

h. **Word toss.**
Divide a large sheet of paper or plastic into 26 squares and write a different letter of the alphabet in each block. Standing several feet away, the students take turns tossing a bean bag onto the sheet and naming the letter on which it lands.

8 Early Literary Experiences

Early literary experiences refer to a wide variety of opportunities for a child to be involved with various forms of reading. Listening to adults reading stories is one of the most beneficial experiences which can be provided. Picture books, nursery rhyme books and other books designed for the young child provide literary enrichment. Conversations regarding television advertisements, signboards, magazines, food packaging labels, and traffic signs add further to the child's awareness and interest in the reading process. These experiences with printed materials usually begin long before a child enters school and are appropriate throughout the primary years.

The skillful teacher has many opportunities to enhance a child's understanding of language through a variety of literary experiences. The rationale for such instruction and some suggested activities follow.

A. MATCHING ORAL AND WRITTEN LANGUAGE. It is necessary to help children establish a "match," or a relationship between the words they hear and know and those same words on paper. The best means of helping children acquire the "match" between their oral language and book language is to have the children listen to stories read aloud.

The reading of stories to children should begin the first week of school. The stories should be about interesting topics using words already familiar to the child. This type of experience will enhance early reading achievement.

B. BOOKS TO BE READ ALOUD. Reading aloud to children should be a daily occurrence. With carefully selected picture books, the teacher can read the story and share the pictures with the students. The reader may wish to summarize parts of the story or ask students to react. One may even ask the students to anticipate story endings. The discussion should be short enough that it does not interfere with the story line.

Several good sources of books for primary children are available. One of the best is *Picture Books for Children* (Cianciolo, 1973), which contains reviews of approximately 400 picture books for elementary students. Thirty books are included here for the teacher who is seeking books for children in the early reading stage.

The books and their respective authors are as follows:

Anderson, Hans Christian. *The Ugly Duckling*
Brenner, Barbara. *Faces*
Brightman, Alan. *Like Me*
Brown, Margaret Wise. *The Runaway Bunny*
Carle, Eric. *The Very Hungry Caterpillar*
Crews, Donald. *Freight Train*
Fisher, Aileen. *Sleepy Heads*
Freeman, Don. *Corduroy*
Hoban, Tana. *Look Again*
Johnson, Crockett. *Harold & The Purple Crayon*
Keats, Ezra Jack. *Peter's Chair*
Kraus, Robert. *How the Spider Saved Halloween*
Kraus, Ruth. *The Carrot Seed*
Kuskin, Karla. *Herbert Hated Being Small*
Lewis, Richard. *In A Spring Garden*
Lionni, Leo. *Frederick*
Marsh, Jeri. *Hurrah For Alexander!*
Mayer, Mercer. *Just For You*
McCloskey, Robert. *Make Way For Ducklings*
McGovern, Ann. *Black Is Beautiful*
Milne, A. A. *Winnie-The-Pooh*
Peet, Bill. *Hubert's Hair-Raising Adventure*
Polland, Barbara. *Feelings: Inside You and Outloud Too*
Preston, Edna. *The Temper Tantrum Book*
Sendak, Maurice. *Where The Wild Things Are*
Suess, Dr. *And To Think That I Saw It On Mulberry Street*
Viorst, Judith. *Sunday Morning*
Wildsmith, Brian. *The Little Wood Duck*
Williams, Barbara. *Kevin's Grandma*
Zolotow, Charlotte. *The Hating Book*

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Section IV
Instructional Methods

Chapter 9
Methods for Teaching Reading

Chapter 10
Word Recognition

Chapter 11
Comprehension

Chapter 12
Study Skills

Chapter 13
Reading in the Content Areas

9 Methods for Teaching Reading

A. APPROACHES TO READING INSTRUCTION. The differences among the major approaches to the teaching of reading lie mainly in the area of beginning reading instruction. The major approaches will be described here with special emphasis on the means by which the word recognition skills are taught.

1. *Basal Approach.*
The basal approach is the most common approach to the teaching of reading. Programs are constructed so that through the use of the basal readers, workbooks and other related materials, students are given the opportunity to learn word recognition skills in a variety of ways. Since there are approximately 15 publishers of basal readers, there are differences in the sequence of skill development which must be noted if one is selecting basal readers for reading instruction.

2. *Language Experience Approach.*
The language experience approach to the teaching of reading uses the child's oral language as the basis for reading instruction. In the initial stages, the teacher writes while the child tells about his experiences. Later, students may tell stories on tape or write their own story. The teacher uses the child's recorded words and stories to develop phonic skills, structural analysis skills, comprehension and vocabulary skills. There is no predetermined sequence in the teaching of word recognition techniques.

3. *Individualized Approach.*
In the individualized approach, most of the materials used for instruction are library books or individual reading books. After reading the book, the student has a conference with the teacher to discuss the book. Proponents of this approach generally do not believe there is a definite sequence in the introduction of word recognition skills. Skills are taught as the student needs them. Accurate record keeping is needed when this approach is used, as the teacher needs to indicate the skills that a student has mastered on his individual record.

4. *Programmed Approach.*
Programmed reading instruction may be presented by a teaching machine or a computer, but it is most often taught by a book. The Buchanan-Sullivan (1963) materials are perhaps the most commonly use programmed readers. Programmed reading instruction is an individualized method in which the reader accepts much responsibility for his learning and progresses at his own rate. Correct answers are given immediately upon the completion of a task. The sequence of skills presented is highly structured, and all students progress through all of the programmed materials, though at various rates.

5. *Linguistic Approaches.*
The traditional linguistic approach to the teaching of reading strongly emphasized decoding-often with no concern for comprehension. While similar to some of the phonic methods, the linguistic approaches do not isolate sounds or break up words. Sound-letter relationships are established by the repetition of known words and through the use of word families, such as fat, cat, sat, hat, etc.

6. *Orthographic Variations.*
Approaches to the teaching of reading which utilize an orthographic variation of the alphabet generally attempt to help beginning readers acquire a rapid mastery of sound-symbol correspondence. Orthographic variations include such programs as the initial teaching alphabet (ita), UNIFON, the diacritical marking system, Words in Color and the Peabody Rebus Reading Program. These are all beginning programs, and students then make the transfer to the traditional orthography or the regular alphabet, usually by grade 3.

READING STRATEGIES

Approaches	Materials	Instructional Strategy	Modality	Strength	Weakness
Programmed Approach	Series of carefully planned materials terminated in some predesignated behavior	Highly structured and systematic step-by-step sequencing of instruction fashioned to initiate a predetermined behavior	Primarily visual Some kinesthetic Auditory may be employed in some programs	Immediate feedback and reinforcement Self-pacing provides for a certain amount of individualization Programs can be matched to needs of each child Program goals and objectives are carefully established and organized before instruction	Programs may become monotonous when responses offer little challenge Impersonalization of instruction May hinder creativity and freedom of thought Children must be able to read to be able to respond to materials Over-reliance on a single modality — either visual or auditory
Individualized Approach	Child selected reading materials	High interest initiated by self-selected materials enhances child's eagerness to read Skill instruction is based on child's needs and is usually provided during conference with the individual or within a small group	Primarily visual May encompass auditory and kinesthetic	Resembles reading for real life experiences Provides time for instruction between teacher and pupil Provides for flexibility and variation Provides avenues for building positive self-image through self-selection of materials	Vast amount of resources to implement program Relies heavily on teacher expertise

READING STRATEGIES

Approaches	Materials	Instructional Strategy	Modality	Strength	Weakness
Basal Approach or Controlled Vocabulary	System of books carefully sequenced and highly organized in terms of difficulty and vocabulary control	Systematic control of teaching/learning situation		Techniques for breaking the English Code (tool for decoding)	May interfere with comprehension
		Two major strategies:			Over-reliance on auditory modality
	Usually accompanied with practice exercises, workbooks or worksheets	1. Sound-symbol System Synthetic Approach	Auditory		Irregularities of English Language — confuses decoding
		2. Look-say Approach Analytic Approach	Visual	Emphasis on meaning from outset	Emphasis on meaning may place overstress on guessing words
Language Experience	Child selected reading materials; minimum of supervision	Little or no structure; promulgated by interests and needs of the child	Visual Oral Some kinesthetic	Builds on what is known to the child Adaptable to individual group, or class instruction Careful assessment of each child's needs by teacher Individualized instruction is maximized Skill development based on functional utility Integration of language with its written form	Relies heavily on teacher expertise Time limitation in finding and developing materials for reinforcing experiences Over-flooding of concepts to the point of frustration

7. *Intensive Phonics Approach.*
An intensive phonics approach emphasizes the use of phonics as the most important word recognition technique. The emphasis is on decoding. Teachers who use an intensive phonics approach may use one of several phonics workbook series. This approach usually supplements one of the other approaches.

B. THE DIRECTED READING/THINKING LESSON. The Directed Reading/Thinking Lesson (DRTL) is a technique consisting of five main steps for the teacher to follow in introducing a reading assignment and developing comprehension. The Directed Reading/Thinking Lesson maybe used as a way to develop comprehension with any of the various approaches to reading instruction. The lesson addresses three elements of comprehension: developing a purpose for reading, developing motivation, and developing all levels of comprehension. The basic outline for this lesson was taken from Russell G. Stauffer's *Teaching Reading as a Thinking Process.*[1]

1. *Preparation for Reading.*

a. **Investigation and expanding the background of student experience.**

(1) Finding out what the students know.
(2) Noting misconceptions of the students.
(3) Filling in with information to give the students an adequate background for understanding.
(4) Arousing student interest.
(5) Giving students an awareness of the significance of the information.

b. **Previewing the reading material.**

(1) Noting the basic structure of the information — the introduction, summary, specific sections.
(2) Discussing the title and subtitles.
(3) Directing attention to the graphic aids: maps, pictures, diagrams, etc.
(4) Noting study aids: specific summaries, questions, vocabulary lists.
(5) Noting new vocabularly which is usually italicized in a textbook.

c. **Introduce the vocabulary pertinent to the fundamental concepts.**

(1) Clarifying basically the fundamental conceptual terms, usually one to five in number.
(2) Analyzing the structure of the words, if necessary, to aid word recognition.
(3) Assisting students to bring their experiences to bear on the meaning of words.
(4) Alerting students to the specific meaning as the word is used in the text.

d. **Evolve purposes for reading.**

(1) Evolving purposes based on the student's own background and needs, those of the group, and in terms of the understandings desired from materials.
(2) Helping students to think of purposes.

2. *Reading the Material Silently.*

a. **Noting the students' abilities to adjust their reading to the purposes set up and to the material.**

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[1] Russell G. Stauffer, *Teaching Reading as a Thinking Process* (New York: Harper and Row, Inc., 1969), pp. 14-15.

b. Observing students to note specific areas of need.

  - (1) Vocabulary: recognition of the word, specific meaning as applied to the content.
  - (2) Comprehension: organization of data, finding answers to purposes, noting relationships within data.

3. *Developing Comprehension.*

a. Discussing answers to purpose questions.

b. Clarifying and guiding further development of the concepts and vocabulary.

c. Assisting the students in noting organization of information and in recalling pertinent facts.

d. Noting need for further information from both the text and other source materials.

e. Redefining purposes; setting new purposes for reading.

4. *Re-Reading (Silent and/or Oral, In Part or In Entirety)*

a. Clarifying further the essential pertinent information and concepts.

Oral reading to prove a point, "Read the line that proves it. Read the lines that gave you this idea." Students must be continually required to produce evidence from the material read to prove they were right or wrong or to give reasons why they should alter conjectures. There is a difference between producing evidence and simply reproducing the facts of a lesson.

b. Giving specific skill training in comprehension as indicated by needs of individuals and the group.

  - (1) Seeing organization of data.
  - (2) Interpreting data: drawing conclusions, making inferences, making generalizations, seeking inter-relationships of data.
  - (3) Evaluating: making judgments, noting author's intent, seeing the significance of the material, noting the use of language.
  - (4) Applying information of real-life situations, formulating new ideas, reorganizing old ideas.
  - (5) Noting use of words: emotive, new meaning, contextual usage, technical terms, indefinite and general terms.
  - (6) Setting up areas for further reading and research.

5. *Following Up The Information.*

a. Setting up problems requiring further information.

  - (1) Using problem-solving; delineating the problem.
  - (2) Locating additional information.
  - (3) Reading to get additional information.
  - (4) Selecting and organizing pertinent ideas related to the problem.
  - (5) Concluding and generalizing from data.
  - (6) Preparing the presentation of the report.

b. Choosing supplementary, recreational reading related to the topic to develop and extend interests, attitudes and appreciations.

c. **Extending further understanding and clarifying further concepts as necessary.**

d. **Analyzing the information and helping students to relate it to their own lives.**

The teacher is the key element in implementing the Directed Reading/Thinking Lesson. By using a systematic approach to the teaching of reading, students are guided through the material. The Reading/Thinking Lesson goes beyond the memorization of data. The teacher guides and directs pupils to seek information, to evaluate it and to apply it.

10 Word Recognition

The teaching of the word recognition skills[1] should be a major component of any reading program. The methods presented here are discussed independently, although they are generally not taught independently of one another. The teacher does not instruct students in the use of context clues and then teach phonics without ever again discussing context. The teacher may teach some aspects of phonics and then review the use of context clues. He/she may then show students how phonics and context may be used together to provide an even more valuable strategy for decoding new words.

All primary grade children and many intermediate grade children need systematic instruction in word recognition. While much of this chapter will be considered most appropriate for the primary teacher, it is hoped that teachers at the intermediate levels will also gain information for teaching word recognition skills.

A. SIGHT VOCABULARY. The goal of word recognition instruction is to increase the student's sight vocabulary steadily, so that the other word recognition techniques are used only in that situation in which a word is not immediately known. Words that the student can pronounce instantly and can associate with meaning are part of his/her sight vocabulary. Growth in the student's sight vocabulary is interrelated with his/her speaking and listening vocabulary. Words are learned more easily and more rapidly if the student already has them in his/her experience background.

To be an effective reader, the student needs to develop an adequate sight vocabulary. Words are learned through much repetition and practice. Listed below are some suggestions for building a student's sight vocabulary.

1. *Choosing the first words.*
The development of a sight vocabulary is sometimes controlled through the basal program. In the basal, words are presented in a repetitious manner, with new words being introduced regularly.

Another system for introducing words is through the Language Experience Approach (see Section IV Chapter 9). In this approach, the child learns words that are based upon his/her language and experience.

In selecting words which should be learned, the following factors need to be considered:

- The child's preference for the words.
- The sound-letter regularity of the words.
- The use of common spelling patterns and phonograms.
- The imagery level of the words.
- The degree to which the child can articulate all parts of the word.
- The frequency of use in oral or written English.

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[1] Although some writers make a distinction, the terms *word recognition skills, word recognition techniques, word analysis techniques, word attack skills* and *decoding strategies* all have the same meaning; they refer to the various means by which the reader arrives at the correct pronunciation of a word.

The best means of establishing a list of these first words for reading is probably to base them on both the child's preference and on word frequency. By introducing the child's preferred or personally selected words, the teacher maintains a high degree of interest in the reading act, and by introducing the most common words (the, and, a, to, he, in, was, his, it and I), the child is provided with the function words necessary in reading standard sentences.

2. *Content Words and Function Words.*
Content words are the nouns, verbs and adjectives that convey the message of a sentence or paragraph. Content words are generally words of high imagery. For example, the noun *dog* may be represented by the physical animal or by a picture; it is quite easy to conjure up a mental image of a dog. In contrast, the function words (articles, conjunctions, verb auxillaries, prepositions and pronouns) are words of no imagery. It is impossible to imagine a *the* or an *of* or an *and* except to imagine the individual letters of the word.

Because function words such as *the* and *and* occur so frequently, they are usually introduced early in the reading program. Although function words are common and are usually very short, they must not be considered easy words for children to learn. Because they are words of no imagery, the function words are considerably more difficult for children to learn than the content words.

3. *Word Lists.*
Teachers may use word lists which contain common words — words which occur frequently. Such lists are usually derived from a large core of words found in speech, writing or literature. Recent, suitable new lists have been compiled with the aid of computer processing. Many teachers still use some of the older lists, such as the Dolch list.

For an extensive list of words, an excellent new source is *The American Heritage Word Frequency Book* (Carroll, Davies, & Richman, 1971), which contains more than 87,000 different words. The high-frequency words (Moe, 1972) and the high-frequency nouns (Moe, 1972b), which are based on a computer analysis of 110 widely used children's books, are good sources of words for beginning readers. The 100 high-frequency words in Table I account for 53 per cent of all the words used in the books analyzed. The 100 high-frequency nouns in Table II account for approximately 45 per cent of all the nouns used in the books. The words in the two lists combined account for 61 per cent of all the words contained in the 110 books examined.

TABLE I

High-Frequency Words[2]

the*
and
a
to
he
of
in
was
his
it
I
you
on
they
said
she
for
that
with
but
her
all
had
little
at
is
as
up
so
one
out
were
him
there
when
them
my
be
not
down
have
their
went
could
what
them
from
came
into
me
see
very
are
this
will
like
go
no
would
just
back
now
over
by
big
do
old
can
if
you
who
away
where
or
an
how
come
looked
get
again
two
we
too
about
saw
good
more
did
made
off
didn't
some
new
red
long
around
know
through
other
put

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*Ranked by column in order of frequency of use

[2] Alden J. Moe, "Word Lists for Beginning Readers," *Reading Improvement* (Fall, 1973), pp. 11-15.

TABLE II

High-Frequency Nouns

mother*
day
house
tree
time
man
way
home
water
father
thought
night
egg
friend
people
thing
morning
bird
dog
boy
snow
bear
eye
cat
children

moon
head
sun
hill
sky
place
rabbit
baby
door
hand
king
bed
men
world
street
window
room
island
monkey
girl
top
feet
rock
winter
something

wind
rose
princess
flower
ground
fool
tail
garden
year
slide
light
rain
cap
horse
nest
sleep
town
lion
river
sea
city
air
grass
food
road

mitten
fish
fire
boat
fox
front
clothes
mouse
corner
woman
forest
ship
spring
field
crocodile
summer
milk
elephant
school
duck
palace
animal
cow
star
wall

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*Ranked by column in order of frequency of use

4. *Picture Clues.*
The use of a picture with the object or the action named is an aid to the child's development of a sight vocabulary. The pictures should clearly represent the word or words presented with it.

Almost all materials published for beginning readers contain pictures with the text. There are two reasons for this. First, it is more interesting for the child to read books with illustrations. Secondly, the illustrations help convey the meaning of the story.

5. *Configuration.*
After a child has learned to recognize several two-, three- or four-letter words, he may be presented a word like *grandmother,* which he learns immediately because its configuration or shape is so different from the other words he knows. Later, when the word *grandfather* is introduced, the child must observe more than the gross configuration and observe the rather subtle features which differentiate *grandfather* and *grandmother.*

The use of configuration in learning new words is most helpful when combined with other word recognition techniques. It is not appropriate to draw eyelashes on the word *look* and state that the word has "two eyes which look at you" since *book, cook, hook* and *took* have a similar configuration which the child may confuse. Similarly, it is not wise to suggest that *monkey* "has a tail" when the word *donkey* is so similar. It is wise to help the children identify some distinctive feature of a word which is not apt to be confusing. In many cases, it means presenting words like *grandmother* and *grandfather* together and showing students that they must look beyond the initial letters in order to identify the word.

6. *Selected Activities, Primary.*
For primary grade children, the following activities are suggested (some may be modified for intermediate grade use):

The word-eating dragon. On a large sheet of tagboard, draw a dragon. Divide his body into sections and write a sight word on each section. Using a spinner and playing markers, the players take turns moving from the dragon's tail to his head. If a player cannot pronounce a word in the space his marker is on, he moves backward until he comes to a word he can pronounce. The first player to reach the head wins. A variation of the game is to have each player move until he comes to a word he cannot pronounce.

Bang! Make a number of cards with sight words on them and place them in a container. For every six or seven word cards, make a card with the word *bang!* written on it and add it to the container. One child draws a card from the can; if he can pronounce it, he keeps the card. If not, he must put it back. If a player should pick a bang! card, he must then put all of his cards back into the container and start over. This continues around the group clockwise until someone has 10 cards in front of him and is the winner.

Sight word fish. Make a bulletin board of under-the-sea life. Let the children make a school of fish, each fish having a sight word written on it. Place all the fish in a box or bucket. Let each child take a turn "fishing". If he knows the word written on his fish, he can keep it; if not, he throws it back into the sea, or puts it on the bulletin board.

Sight vocabulary filmstrips. Collect incorrectly developed filmstrips from a camera dealer. Dunk the filmstrips in Clorox to clear and then write on the strips with felt-tip pens. Use in filmstrip projector and flash sight words as fast as children can read them.

Changeabout. Arrange as many sight word cards as you have players, minus one, in a circle. The extra person is IT and stands in the center of the circle. The other players pick up their cards and hold them in front of them. IT calls out two words, and the children having those words change places, taking their cards with them. IT tries to get to one of the open places. Whoever is left without a space becomes IT. Rotate the word cards between rounds.

Sight word speedway. Make a racetrack on a chart or bulletin board. Put sight words on slips of paper at intervals on the road. Each child makes his own paper car, which is tacked or taped at the point where he has difficulty recognizing a word. He is given that word on a *car card* to take home to study. He continues daily until all words are known.

Jumping words or clapping words. Give each player four or five sight words and have him jump up or clap his/her hands when the voice on the tape recorder says one of his/her words. Occasionally add an extra word on the tape and play "see who gets stuck."

An excellent source of activities for vocabulary development is the book *Techniques of Teaching Vocabulary* (Dale, O'Rourke, and Bamman, 1971).

7. *Selected Activities, Intermediate.*

The following activities are recommended for the intermediate grades:

Casino. Use 26 pairs of sight words written on cards. In the first deal, the dealer gives two cards to his opponents, two cards face up to the table and two to himself. He then deals the second round in the same manner. Each player thus receives four cards, and four are placed on the table. The hands are played; the dealer then gives each player four more cards in rounds of two at a time. After the first deal, the table is dealt no more cards. The general object is to take in cards from the table. Word matches must be said in order to be taken in. If a player does not know the word, he is helped but must wait until his next turn to take the match. Matches can be made only from the table. If no match can be made when it is a player's turn, he discards one card from his hand. The person with the most cards is the winner.

Nine square. Divide the sight words (48 cards) into two different colored packs with 24 sight words in each pack. Lay out a square of nine words in three rows of three each. Each player takes a turn matching the top word of the pile with the nine words in the square. Each time a match is made, the player must say the word on the cards to be matched. If a player sees a match, he takes up the two cards and puts them in his own pile. He may take the match from the nine squares on the desk and continue to match as long as the top card from the pile matches a card in the nine squares. When he sees no more matches, he fills in the nine square from the top of the pile. If a player does not see a match, he plays by moving the card from the top of the pile to the discard pile. No one plays from this pile until the playing pile is gone. The discard pile then becomes the playing pile. One player or the other has the chance, near the end of the game, when he plays the last card of the playing pile, to match all the pairs in the *square* and add them to his pile. When the game is through, each player counts his pile and the one with the most cards is the winner.

Sight word football. Mark off a football field on a large sheet of green poster board. Make lines with masking tape and cover with clear contact paper. Cut football out of brown construction paper. Use a deck of cards with sight words written on them. Divide the players into two teams. The ball advances with each correctly read word. Each team plays until a touchdown (6 points) is scored and receives one extra point for one more right answer. It is then the other team's turn to try for the touchdown. If a word is missed at any time, it is the other team's turn. The teacher may want to limit the time to two 5-minute halves.

Word rummy (similar to 500 rummy). The game is played with 52 cards, four of each word. Eight cards are dealt to each player, and the rest of the deck is placed in the middle with one card turned up. Before play begins, all players lay down pairs from their hands and any card they can play on other players' pairs. When all four cards of one word have been played, the word is dead and cards are turned face down. Once play begins, players play in turn only. The player to the left of the dealer begins by drawing from the deck or discard pile. He may draw as many cards from the discard pile as he wants as long as he plays the bottom card. If a playable card is discarded by mistake, another player may call rummy and play the card for a point. The game is over when a player goes out with a discard. A player may go out without a discard, but the game continues. Each card counts one point. Each card in hand, when game ends, counts one point against the player.

Word darts. Cover a bulletin board with paper and section it off like puzzle pieces with a magic marker. Place point values in each section. Sight vocabulary which is being developed is written on cards and stapled, one card to each section. The game is then played like regular darts, but rubber suction type darts should probably be used. The student gets three throws and adds his points. As he removes the darts, he says the word in each section in which his darts have landed. Words can be changed as frequently as necessary and more difficult words placed in sections worth more points. Young children can cover eyes and walk up to board and stick a pin in three places or just point to a section with eyes shut.

Hangman. Draw a hangman figure on the chalkboard at the beginning of the game. Two persons using tongue depressors as pointers stand in front of a chart containing all or a limited number of sight words. The teacher calls out a word and the first one to point to the word may erase a part of the *hangman.* The person who gets to erase a part sits down and someone else is chosen to challenge the other person. The noose is the last part to be erased.

Sight word bingo. This game is played like bingo. Players are provided with cards containing 25 sight words (five rows of five words). The teacher pronounces a word, and the players look to see if their card contains the word. If it does, they cover it. The first player to get five squares covered in a row, column or diagonally wins. The winner should read the words quickly for the teacher to insure that he can recognize the words by sight.

B. USE OF CONTEXT. The use of context clues can be one of the greatest aids in helping the reader determine both the meaning and pronunciation of unfamiliar words. The use of context is both a word recognition technique and a comprehension skill. The use of context means examining the known words surrounding the unfamiliar word to get clues which help the reader discover the meaning and pronunciation of the unknown word. Often the language structure provides clues to the meaning of the unknown word.

There are several ways in which context clues may be used:

- To check whether the pronounced word makes sense in the sentence.
- As an additional step when using other word attack skills.
- As a technique to determine the meaning of the unknown word.
- To derive the pronunciation of a *known* word whose pronunciation changes because of its use in a sentence.
- To enable the reader to anticipate the words he is to read.

1. *Types of Context Clues.*

Many writers intentionally provide context clues for the reader. The use of pictures or drawings to gain clues to the meaning and pronunciation of words is common in the primary grades and for remedial work at other levels when students need strong association between form and meaning. Other common types of context clues are:

Definition. The definition technique is usually limited to situations in which the word is used for the first time.

Example: Mike sailed in the *regatta.* (A regatta is a series of boat races).

Example. Descriptions or examples of the unknown word may clarify the meaning.

Example: There are many possible *configuration* patterns. Items may be arranged in rows, columns or in a circle.

Synonym. Synonyms are used in the same manner as definitions when the author wishes to explain a difficult word or terms.

Example: The solution was an *enigma,* a puzzle.

Mood. The mood or tone of the story gives a clue to the type of category of word the reader might expect to encounter.

Example: The cookout had been planned for days, but the guests arrived at the same time the rain did. There was no picnic shelter. The charcoal wouldn't light, and the food became wet and soggy. The cookout was a *catastrophe.*

Experience. Past experience provide the clues for the unknown word.

Example: Jack gave his dog a *bone* to chew.

Often when the use of context clues is combined with an inspection of the initial letter of the unknown word, the reader is given enough information to determine the identity of that word.

2. *Assessing the Reader's Use of Context.*
The teacher can listen to the child read orally to determine how effectively he uses context clues. The teacher notes which words are missed and evaluates whether they should have been determined from context. Also, the reader should be questioned about the meaning of certain words where the meaning is evident from the context. In silent reading, the reader can underline the words he does not know how to pronounce or define.

Another procedure which may be used is the cloze technique, in which the teacher deletes every fifth or sixth word in a paragraph and instructs the reader to fill in the blank spaces with words which make sense in the sentence. As an instructional exercise, the teacher may modify the cloze technique as desired, omitting only nouns or only verbs, for example.

Inattention to context may be a result of inadequate knowledge of the *uses* of context, weaknesses in comprehension skills, word-by-word reading, carelessness or any combination of the above.

The teacher can promote skill in the use of context clues by examining the material closely to determine whether the context *does* give a clue, by helping children attach appropriate meanings to new words that are encountered and by providing many opportunities for children to practice and extend their skill in the use of context clues. Context clues are most helpful when the material is on a student's instructional or independent reading level.

3. *Selected Activities.*
There are many practice exercises in the use of context which the teacher can construct or obtain in reading workbooks. Examples of such exercises are:

Exercises in which the sentence meaning indicates the word to be recognized.

Example: The child sat in the canoe as they paddled through the quiet blue _________.
a. sky   b. water   c. trees

Exercises in which the student reads sentences and fills in the missing word using the initial letter(s) given.

Example: John caught the football. Then he th_____ it to Billy.

Exercises in which the student reads a sentence and fills in the missing word.

Example: Mother baked some ________ yesterday.
a. cookies b. cats c. cried

Exercises using riddles in which the context gives the answer.

Example: It is long and yellow. It has a point. It is used for writing. It is a ________.

Exercises using half of a word pair in sentences which require the student to supply the missing half.

Example: I ate a peanut butter and ________ sandwich for lunch.

Sentence mix-up game. Use two decks of cards, one which has cards containing a sentence with a missing word, the other containing words which might fit. Each child draws four cards from each deck and then, in turn, draws and discards cards until he/she matches four words with four sentences. The first person to match four pairs is the winner.

Climb the ladder game. Divide the class into two teams and draw a ladder for each team, having the same number of rungs on each. The teacher asks the first member of one team to tell the meaning of the word after it has been read in the context of a sentence. If he answers correctly, he climbs one rung of the ladder for his team. The team that climbs to the top of its ladder first wins.

C. PHONICS. By teaching phonics, the teacher attempts to help students learn the relationship between the language they already speak and the language they are learning to read and spell. While there are many phonic methods, the objective of all methods is to lead students to some generalizations about the correspondence between spoken and written English.

The English language uses 26 letters (the alphabet) to represent the 44 or 45 phonemes (sounds) of English. If there were one letter for each speech sound, there would be a one-to-one correspondence between sound and letter and our language would be completely consistent. Since our language does not function that way, the reader is faced with situations in which a given sound is represented by various letters and letter combinations, as in the following words: *f*ood, gira*ff*e, *ph*one, and enou*gh*. In some cases a given letter represents more than one speech sound, as in *c*ity and *c*ar or l*a*ke and b*a*t. And, in other situations letters are considered "silent" in that they are not pronounced as in go*a*t and *k*new. Nevertheless, in spite of the inconsistencies between spoken and written English, enough regularity exists that children should be guided in the acquisition of phonics skills.

1. *Analytic and Synthetic Approaches.*
The analytic approaches are those in which the teacher first teaches a limited number of sight words, approximately 75 to 125, and then, through the use of these known words, teaches the reader to make inferences about sound-letter relationships for unknown words. For example, the teacher may have introduced *m*an, *m*other, *m*e and *m*ade as sight words. Then, by having the students analyze the words and note that they all sound alike at the beginning and that they all begin with the letter *m*, the students learn the sound-letter association for *m*. Subsequently, when the students encounter such unknown words as *m*oon, *m*onkey and *m*itten, they will know and sound that *m* represents and will have a clue to help them identify the new words. Such an approach is sometimes called linguistic phonics, although it is essentially an analytic phonic method.

In the synthetic approaches to the teaching of phonics, the teacher teaches the individual letter-sound associations and then teaches the students to combine or synthesize the parts into a whole word. In the synthetic approach, the teacher would present the printed letter and identify the sound which the letter represents. The student who has been instructed in a synthetic method will be more likely to isolate letter-sound and word parts since his/her teacher does it. This practice is strongly opposed by linguists on the contention that it is unnatural since persons do not talk in word parts.

2. *Consonants.*

In developing phonics skills, it is probably best to develop sound-symbol correspondence with consonants before vowels, although some persons do present vowels first. Consonants maintain their sound-symbol regularity much more so than vowels. For example, *b* always represents the sound heard at the beginning of the words *boy, big* and *bear,* whereas the letter *a* may represent several sounds, as in *cake, care, add, father* or *idea.*

The following consonants generally represent only one phoneme and are suggested for introduction first: *b, d, f, h, j, l, m, n, r, s, t,* and *w.*

A good way to teach sound-symbol correspondence with the consonants is by using every-pupil response techniques. For example, assume the teacher is developing sound-symbol correspondence with *b* and *r.* Each child is provided with a card with the letter *b* and another card with the letter *r.* After several examples, the teacher asks the students to respond by holding up the correct card in response to directions such as "show me the letter that stands for the sound at the beginning of *boy* or *road.*" Students may even be provided with three or four cards, and the teacher may wish to work on final and medial consonants as well.

3. *Blends.*

Sounds that are combined, but which maintain the sound which individual letters represent, are called blends. The *bl* in *blue,* the *br* in *brown,* the *sn* in *snow,* the *cl* in *clay* and the *str* in *straw* are all blends. Blends are sometimes referred to as clusters, clusters being a term used to describe both blends and digraphs. Beginning consonant blends are common. They should be taught after consonant sound-letter correspondence has been learned.

Several consonant blends are so common that they are often referred to as families of blends. They are the *s, l* and *r* families often found in such words as:

spot
scout
snow
smooth
stray
spray

glow
blow
flew
clear
play
sled

crow
grow
break
tree
proud
draw

4. *Phonograms and Consonant Substitutions.*

Consider the child who has learned the words *father, fast, food* and *fun* and has been led to see the relationship between the initial sound and the initial letter of each word. If this same child is learning *at, cat, hat, mat* and *rat* and has been led to see the relationship between the sound at the end of the words and the letters *at,* hopefully he will be able to decode the word *fat* or say it by himself when he encounters it for the first time. This is an example of consonant substitution. The student applies what he has learned in one situation to a new situation.

Consonant substitution can best be achieved if the teacher uses common phonograms, often called word families. With phonograms it is possible to create many new words by adding consonants and consonant blends.

Some of the more common phonograms, with a few of the words which may generate from each, are listed below.

ack — back, black, crack, jack, lack, pack, quack, sack, shack
ail — ail, fail, frail, hail, jail, mail, sail, pail, quail, rail
ake — bake, brake, cake, flake, lake, make, rake, shake, snake
ale — ale, bale, gale, male, pale, sale, scale, stale, tale, whale
ame — blame, came, dame, flame, game, lame, name, same, shame
ank — bank, blank, crak, drank, frank, plank, rank, sank, spank
ap — cap, chap, clap, gap, lap, nap, map, rap, sap, snap, scrap
are — bare, care, dare, fare, glare, mare, pare, rare, scare, share
ash — ash, cash, clash, crash, dash, flash, gash, hash, lash, mash
at — at, bat, cat, chat, fat, flat, hat, mat, pat, rat, sat, that
ate — ate, crate, date, gate, hate, late, mate, plate, rate, skate
ave — behave, brave, cave, gave, pave, rave, save, shave, wave
aw — caw, claw, draw, flaw, gnaw, jaw, law, paw, raw, saw, slaw
ay — bay, bray, clay, day, dray, gay, gray, hay, jay, lay, may
ear — clear, dear, ear, fear, gear, hear, near, rear, smear, spear
eat — beat, cheat, eat, heat, neat, meat, peat, seat, treat, wheat
ell — bell, cell, fell, sell, shell, smell, spell, tell, well
est — best, blest, chest, guest, nest, pest, test, rest, vest
ice — dice, ice, lice, mice, nice, price, rice, spice
ick — brick, chick, click, kick, lick, nick, pick, quick, sick
ide — bride, glide, guide, hide, pride, ride, side, slide, tide
ight — bright, fight, flight, fright, height, knight, light, might
ill — bill, chill, dill, drill, fill, grill, hill, ill, kill, mill
in — bin, chin, din, fin, gin, grin, in, pin, sin, skin, spin
ine — dine, fine, line, mine, nine, pine, shine, spine, twine
ing — bring, cling, ding, king, ping, ring, sing, sling, spring
ink — blink, brink, drink, ink, kink, link, pink, shrink, sink
it — bit, fit, grit, hit, kit, lit, mit, pit, quit, sit, slit
ock — block, clock, cock, crock, dock, flock, frock, knock, lock
oke — awoke, broke, choke, coke, joke, poke, smoke, spoke, stroke
op — chop, crop, drop, flop, hop, lop, mop, pop, prop, shop
ore — bore, core, fore, more, score, shore, snore, sore, store
ot — blot, cot, dot, got, hot, jot, knot, lot, not, pot, plot
ow — blow, bow, crow, flow, glow, grow, know, low, mow, row
uck — chuck, cluck, duck, luck, puck, stuck, shuck, struck, suck
ug — bug, drug, dug, hug, jug, mug, plug, rug, smug, snug, tug
ump — bump, dump, hump, jump, lump, plump, pump, rump, slump

ung — clung, flung, lung, rung, slung, sprung, strung, stung

unk — bunk, chunk, drunk, hunk, junk, punk, shrunk, skunk, spunk

ush — blush, brush, crush, flush, gush, hush, mush, plush, rush

y — by, cry, dry, fly, fry, my, shy, sky, sly, sty, thy, try

If one considers using beginning consonants and phonograms and forms words such as *set, wet, pet* or *lake, take, make, flake, brake,* it is possible to generate hundreds of words which do maintain sound-letter regularity.

5. *Phonograms and Spelling Patterns.*
Several spelling patterns represent uniformity in a given combination of letters and are usually pronounced the same regardless of the word in which they are found. For example, the consonant-vowel-consonant (CVC) spelling pattern with the *an* phonogram includes such words as *fan, man, pan, plan* and *span.* In the consonant-vowel-consonant-final-silent-e (CVCE) spelling pattern, the words *mate, hate, fate* and *plate* maintain their regularity. In the consonant-vowel-vowel-consonant (CVVC) spelling pattern, the regularity is not as great, but some of the vowel combinations are regular, i.e., the *oa* in *boat, goat* and *float.* In the consonant vowel (CV) pattern found in several common short words, such as *he* and *me,* and in many syllables, such as the *ti,* in *tiger,* we also have consistency in sound-letter relationship.

6. *Digraphs and Diphthongs.*
Letter combinations which represent sounds which are usually different from the sounds represented by the individual letters are called digraphs and diphthongs.

There are two types of digraphs, consonant digraphs and vowel digraphs. The common consonant digraphs are *ch, sh, th, wh, ng, gh* and *ph.* It is essential to know that while the consonant digraphs contain two letters, they represent only one sound. Because many common words such as *the, they, that* and *there* contain digraphs, it is important that children understand them early.

In contrast to the consonant digraphs, the vowel digraphs do not represent new sounds. The *oa* in *goat* is a vowel digraph as is the *ea* in *bean.* Vowel digraphs maintain a sound represented by one of the two vowels and the other is silent.

Diphthongs represent a sound formed by the union of two vowels, such as the *oi* in *boil* or the *ou* in *out.* The more common diphthongs are *oi, ou, ow* and *oy.*

7. *Phonic Generalizations.*
Most of the phonic generalizations or rules which have appeared in print in the last 40 years are of questionable value because (1) there are too many exceptions to the rules, (2) there are too few words to which the generalizations might reasonably apply and (3) some are too complex to be understood by primary grade students. Clymer[3] in 1963 studied the usefulness of phonetic generalizations as they pertain to words in primary basals and found that the majority of the rules had limited value, because of the many exceptions to them. Bailey[4] and Emans[5] in similar studies applied the generalizations to words beyond the primary grades and found the rules were consistent less than 75% of the time.

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[3] Theodore Clymer, "The Utility of Phonic Generalizations in the Primary Grades," *The Reading Teacher* (16 January, 1963), pp. 252-258.

[4] Mildred Hart Bailey, "The Utility of Phonic Generalizations in Grades One Through Six," *The Reading Teacher* (February, 1967), pp. 413-418.

[5] Robert Emans, "The Usefulness of Phonic Generalizations Above the Primary Grade," *The Reading Teacher* (10 February, 1967), pp. 419-425.

It is important that students arrive at some generalizations about their written language. It is probably better, however, to help children develop generalizations by teaching them about phonograms and spelling patterns than to try to present a pre-determined number of phonic rules. Students need to understand that the rules are tools to be used and tried out, but are not always consistent.

Listed below are some phonic principles which might assist the teacher in helping students decode unfamiliar words. These principles are presented here for the teacher's reference only.

Phonic Principles

a. The vowel in a syllable which ends with one or more consonants (a closed syllable has a short sound. *(ash, cell, fifth, ton)*

b. A vowel which is the final letter of a syllable (an open syllable) is usually long. *(villi, zero, ratio)*

c. A syllable having two vowels, one of which is a final e, usually has the long sound of the first vowel with the final e silent. *(nitrate, secede, lime, node, cube, dye)*

d. When a vowel is followed by r, it assumes a different sound, neither long nor short. *(arbitrate, vermin, fir, force, furnace)*

e. In words that contain two vowels together (digraph) such as ai, ay, oa, ee, and ea, usually the first is long and second is silent. *(impeach, brain, steam, ray, steel)*

f. In words that contain two vowels together such as au, aw, eu and oo, the vowel letters (digraphs) have a special sound unlike either of the vowels. *(caustic, pasteurize, food, sewage)*

g. In words that contain two consonants together such as sh, wh, th and ch, the consonant letters (digraphs) produce a single and new sound. *(ship, wheat, this, third, change, chorus)*

h. Some words have a blend of two or more consonants, each of which retains its own sound. *(blood, stomach, gland, trade)*

i. Some words have a blend of two vowels (diphthongs) which produces a blended sound. *(coil, boycott, mouth)*

j. When c or g is followed by e, i or y, each is usually soft. *(city, century, cyst, geometric, gyroscope)*

8. *Selected Activities.*
Some activities which may be used for practice in various phonic skills are:

Alpha cards. This game is designed to provide practice in the recognition of initial and final consonant sounds. A path is made on the game board with squares which have consonants printed on them. Dice and picture and word cards are also needed. Seven cards are dealt to each player. The first player throws the dice and moves the number of spaces indicated. He then checks to see if he has a picture or word card in his hand which starts or ends with the letter sound on which he has landed. If he does, he puts the card in the discard pile. The winner is the first player to discard all of his cards.

Name that word. Make enough small cards so that each consonant can be printed on a separate card. More than one card for each consonant may be used. Place the cards face down on the table. The players then take turns selecting a card and naming a word which begins with the same letter. If a player cannot name a word within five seconds, he puts the card back. The person with the greatest number of cards after the entire pile has been drawn wins.

Flasher bingo. Each child is given a different mimeographed sheet of letters and several plastic disks. The teacher flashes a picture on the screen with the overhead projector. The players find the letter which stands for the beginning sound of the picture on their papers and cover it with a disk. The first child with five letters covered in a row wins the game. This procedure can also be applied to ending sounds.

Can of worms. This game is designed to provide practice on initial consonants and phonograms. Fill a can with fat paper worms on which common phonograms are written. Also construct a number of brightly colored fish, on each of which is written a consonant, and place them face down on the table. The players take turns drawing a worm and "hooking" a fish with it. If the initial consonant on the fish can be combined with the phonogram on the worm to make a word, the player can keep the fish and worm. If not, he throws the fish and worm back and waits until his next turn to try again. The player with the most fish and worms at the end of the game wins.

Vowel houses. Cards with one-syllable words containing different vowels and a game board showing "vowel houses" which represent different vowels (two houses per vowel — 10 houses in all) are needed. Each player receives five cards with one-syllable words on them. Players take turns placing one card in the correct vowel house on the board. If they do not place the card correctly, they must keep the card and draw another. The winner is the first person to place all of his cards in the houses.

Blend pass. On word cards, write a word containing a blend which has been taught. Cut each word into two pieces between the blend and the remainder of the word. Put about 10 of these in an envelope for each student. The students then assemble the cards to make words. After they have completed their envelopes of words, they exchange with another student and work on 10 different words.

Vowel fish. This game can be used to provide practice on different vowel sounds by using them in words. A deck of 52 word cards is used. Pass out seven cards to each player and play the card game "fish." Each player takes a turn asking for the vowel sound he needs to make a book. For example, he may ask for a card with the long *i* sound, as in *fight.* The person with the most books at the end of the game wins.

Phonic tiddly winks. A game board drawn to look like a target is sectioned into parts, each of which contains a consonant, vowel, blend, digraph or diphthong. Each player flips a button onto the board and scores a point if he can give a word using the phonic element on which he has landed. Some spaces may be worth more points than others. The person with the most points at the end of the game wins.

D. STRUCTURAL ANALYSIS. Structural analysis is a technique for breaking a word into its component parts for identification, these parts being portions larger than individual letters. The sequence in decoding a word by means of structural analysis usually consists of looking at the whole word, the word parts and then the whole word again.

Structural analysis is possible with three kinds of words. They may be (1) words with inflectional endings, such as *s, 's, es, d, ed, er, est* or *ing;* (2) derived words, constructed from a root, a suffix and/or prefix, or (3) compound words.

1. *Inflected Forms.*

The simplest form of structural analysis begins in the first grade through the recognition of inflectional variants. Inflected endings do not have specific meaning, rather they may change the tense of verbs or the number of nouns; indicate the possessive case, comparison or degree in adjectives, or be the present or past participle.

2. *Derived Forms.*

A derived form, or derivative, is a word made up of a root word and one or more parts called prefixes and suffixes. The child must examine words carefully to discover the familiar root which conveys the meaning. He must learn that prefixes and suffixes have meanings of their own which, when combined with root words, may create a distinctly different meaning, such as in the words *unhappy* or *unreliable.*

A *prefix* is one or more syllables put at the beginning of a word to change its meaning. Some frequently used prefixes are:

Prefix	Meaning
ab	from
anti	against
be	by
de	from
dis	apart, not
en	in
ex	out
il	not
im	in, into, not
in	in, into, not
ir	not
non	not
post	behind
pre	in front of, before
pro	in front of, before
re	back
sub	under
super	above, over
trans	across
un	not

A *suffix* is a syllable which is added to the end of a word and which usually results in a change of meaning. Some frequently used suffixes are:

Suffix	Meaning
able	able to, capable of
age	act of
ant (ent)	one who
ar (ary)	relating to
er	agent, performer of
ful	full of
hood	state of, condition
ist	practicer or believer in
ize	to become like
less	without
ness	state of
ory	producing, tending to
ose	full of, containing
ous	having, full of
ship	state of, full of
y	in the manner of

Intermediate grade teachers will find derived forms of words are the key to the extension of a child's meaning vocabulary. *Techniques of Teaching Vocabulary* (Dale, O'Rourke and Bamman, 1971) provides many excellent activities in this area for the intermediate grades. Additional suffixes and prefixes are found in Section IV, Chapter 11.

3. *Compound Words.*
A compound word is one made up of two or more simple words, neither of which has changed form in the process. Structural analysis includes the identification of two known words within a compound word. For example, the word *something* consists of the words *some* and *thing.* Some compound words are written as two words, as in the case of *ice cream* and *post office.*

4. *Syllabication.*
Syllabication is the division of words into their pronounceable units, or syllables. Syllabication is useful inasmuch as it helps the student break words into smaller units which the student can pronounce and blend back into a word which makes sense.

Spache and Spache[6] suggest the following concepts and procedures as those which we should be concerned with teaching, rather than a myriad of rules:

- Each important part of a word has a vowel or a vowel combination as part of it.
- We call these parts of a word that we can recognize and pronounce, syllables.
- Look at the word and try to say it slowly, part by part.
- If a syllable seems to begin and end with a consonant, with a vowel between them, try the short sound for the vowel.
- If a syllable seems to be only a vowel, or to end with a vowel, try the long sound of the vowel.
- Do you now recognize the word?
- If not, read the sentence all the way through again, and try to guess what word that begins like the new word would make sense.
- Try to say the word again; if you still have no clues, try the long vowel sound instead of short in some of the syllables. Now do you recognize it?
- If not, mark it by underlining or putting a check in the margin. Go on and finish your reading.
- If you still have not figured out the word, and you need it to understand the selection, go to the dictionary.

5. *Possessives and Contractions.*
The use of the apostrophe in possessives and contractions is usually introduced in the primary grades. The teacher must demonstrate the use of the apostrophe and must develop exercises which provide practice. The apostrophe in possessives shows ownership. The apostrophe in contractions indicates that a letter or letters have been omitted in forming the new word. Some contractions to be studied include:

Contraction	**Full Form**
I'm	I am
he'll	he will
I'll	I will
he's	he is
hasn't	has not
I've	I have
haven't	have not
don't	do not
wasn't	was not
they've	they have
you'll	you will

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[6] George Daniel Spache, and Evelyn B. Spache, *Reading in the Elementary School,* 4th ed. (Boston: Allyn and Bacon, 1977).

it's	it is
doesn't	does not
let's	let us
didn't	did not
can't	cannot
isn't	is not
you're	you are
you'll	you will
we're	we are
we'll	we will
they're	they are
they'll	they will

Readers who have an adequate knowledge of sound-symbol correspondence and who have gained facility in breaking words into structural units usually have little trouble in attacking new words independently.

6. *Selected Activities.*
Some of the activities which teachers may wish to use in teaching structural analysis skills are:

Plurals. Put a sentence on the board with two forms of the same word and have the children select the correct form.

Example: I have one (dog dogs).

Compound words. Match a word in Column 1 with a word in Column 2 to form a compound word.

Column 1	**Column 2**
with	track
bed	house
club	room
race	out

Contractions. Match the words in Column 1 with the appropriate contractions in Column 2

Column 1	**Column 2**
do not	I'll
will not	don't
I will	won't
have not	haven't

Syllables. Print syllables or other structural parts of words on cards which the student can assemble to form words. The activity can be evaluated by having the students pronounce and define their words.

Prefix and suffix baseball game. Two teams select a pitcher, who will pitch a prefix or suffix card to another student, the batter. The batter must think of and pronounce a word using the prefix or suffix. If he does so, he moves to first base, and it is the next batter's turn.

Word wheels. Print root words on the inner circle of the wheel and suffixes on the outer wheel, or print prefixes on the inner wheel and root words on the outer wheel. The student can then rotate the wheel to see how many words can be formed.

Fish. Make a deck of cards printed with root words. For each root word make additional word cards, formed by using three different endings for each root word, i.e., pick, picking, picks, picked. Deal each player five cards. Place the rest face down for a drawing pile. Each player, in turn, draws a card and discards. The object is to get the most tricks; each trick consisting of the four cards of the root word family.

Concentration. Prepare cards with word pairs. Make sets similar to one another utilizing root words and endings. Mix them up and lay them face down. Each player turns over two cards at a time, looking for words which match exactly. This requires players to give careful attention to word endings.

Prefix game. Prepare a game board with a colored construction paper path, spinner, markers and cards containing words with prefixes. On the back of each word card, the word is printed again, this time with the prefix underlined. The child picks a word card and must correctly tell which letters of the word are the prefix. He/she spins the spinner to see how many spaces to move and checks his/her answer on the back of the card. The first person to reach the finish wins. Suffixes may be used instead of prefixes.

Contractions. Provide a set of cards with contractions printed on them and a set of cards printed with matching words. Distribute the cards so that each child will have a card from each set. One child is designated to go to the front of the class. He/she holds up a card from either set. The child with the matching card takes his/her place beside the child who is standing before the class. Each child then reads what his card says. The first child may choose another child to go before the class with his/her card to be matched. Continue until all cards have been matched.

Word Building. The teacher starts with any root word (verbs tend to work best). Have students add prefixes and/or suffixes one at a time. Each time a prefix or suffix is added, the student gives the new complete definition of the word. This works well with real words, but is even more fun when the result is an imaginary, class-developed word.

E. THE DICTIONARY. Even though students are taught to make effective use of context clues and to use other word attack skills to determine the meaning of unknown words, they must sometimes use the dictionary. A knowledge of how to make use of a dictionary and its contents is essential to independent word analysis.

1. *Dictionary Skills.*
The term dictionary skills refers to the use of the dictionary to determine the location, pronunciation, meaning and spelling of unfamiliar words. Instruction in dictionary skills usually begins in grade three and continues through grade six, although the use of picture dictionaries begins the development of such skills much earlier.

Zintz[7] has cited the following location skills which are often included in dictionary instruction:

- Ability to arrange words in alphabetical order by initial letter, by second letter and by third or fourth letters.
- Ability to find words quickly in an alphabetical list.
- Ability to open the dictionary quickly to the section in which the word is to be found (to the proper fourth of the book).
- Ability to use the two guide words at the top of the page.

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[7] Miles V. Zintz, *The Reading Process: The Teacher and The Learner,* 3rd Ed. (Dubuque, Iowa: William C. Brown, 1980).

- Ability to think of the names of letters immediately preceding and immediately following the letter being located.
- Ability to use special pronunciation-meaning sections of the dictionary, i.e., medical terms, slang expressions, musical terms and foreign words and phrases.

Zintz[8] has identified the following pronunciation skills as an area to be included in dictionary study:

- Ability to use the pronunciation key at the bottom of each page.
- Ability to use the full pronunciation key in the front of the dictionary.
- Ability to use and interpret accent marks, both primary and secondary.
- Ability to select the proper heteronyms, i.e., rec' ord or re/ cord'; ob' ject or ob/ ject'.
- Ability to identify silent letters in words pronounced.
- Ability to recognize differences between spellings and pronunciations (lack of phoneme-grapheme relationship).
- Ability to use phonetic spelling for pronunciation.
- Ability to discriminate vowel sounds.
- Ability to use diacritical marks as an aid in pronunciation.
- Understanding of the way syllables are marked in dictionaries.
- Ability to identify unstressed syllables in words.
- Arriving at pronunciation and recognizing it as correct.

The following meaning skills comprise another area of dictionary study identified by Zintz:

- Learning meanings of new words by reading simple definitions.
- Using pictures and meanings in the dictionary to arrive at meanings.
- Using an illustrative sentence to arrive at meanings.
- Using two different meanings for the same word.
- Ability to approximate real life sizes by using dictionary pictures and explanatory clues.
- Ability to select the specific meaning for a given context.
- Understanding special meanings: idioms, slang expressions and other figures of speech.
- Use of the concept of *root wood.*
- Interpreting multiple meanings of words.
- Ability to know when meaning has been satisfied through dictionary usage.

2. *Picture Dictionaries.*
The term picture dictionary, or "pictionary" refers to books in which a picture accompanies each word entry. The picture dictionary is primarily a self-help device for children in grades one through three. Through the use of picture dictionaries, children are able to write simple stories independently.

The following list is a sample of available picture dictionaries:

Ginn and Company, *My Picture Dictionary*
Ginn and Company, *My Second Picture Dictionary*
Grosset and Dunlap, *Child's First Picture Dictionary*
Harper & Row Publishers, Inc., *Words I Like to Read and Write*
Harper & Row Publishers, Inc., *Words to Read, Write and Spell*
Houghton Mifflin Company, *My First Dictionary*

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[8] Ibid.

Houghton Mifflin Company, *Beginning Dictionary*
Macmillan Publishing Company, *The Macmillan First Dictionary*
Macmillan Publishing Company, *The Macmillan Beginning Dictionary*
Random House, *Cat in the Hat Beginner Dictionary*
Scott, Foresman and Company, *My First Picture Dictionary*
Scott, Foresman and Company, *My Second Picture Dictionary*

3. *Dictionaries Used in the Elementary School.*
Many good dictionaries are available for use in the elementary school. Every attempt should be made to provide a dictionary for each student in the class, although the same dictionary need not be provided for each child. Some of the dictionaries available are:

Elsevier-Nelson Books, *Basic Dictionary of Synonyms and Antonyms*
Ginn and Company, *Intermediate Dictionary*
Grosset & Dunlap, Inc., *The Xerox Intermediate Dictionary*
Harcourt-Brace Jovanovich, Inc., *Harcourt-Brace Jovanovich School Dictionary*
Holt, Rinehart & Winston, *The Winston Dictionary for Schools*
Houghton Mifflin Company, *American Heritage Dictionary*
Macmillan Company, *The Macmillan Dictionary*
Prentice-Hall, Inc., *The Charlie Brown Dictionary*
Prentice-Hall, Inc., *Webster's New World Dictionary*
Scott, Foresman & Company, *Scott, Foresman Beginning Dictionary*
Scott, Foresman & Company, *Scott, Foresman Intermediate Dictionary*
Scott, Foresman & Company, *In Other Words: A Junior Thesaurus*
Scott, Foresman & Company, *In Other Words: A Beginning Thesaurus*

4. *Selected Activities.*
Basal reader workbooks and English textbooks contain many dictionary exercises. In addition to these, many dictionary publishers provide study guides to accompany their dictionaries. The following activities are included as a sample of activities the teacher may wish to include in the study of dictionary skills:

Worksheet. For each of the words listed below, write *B* if the word is found near the beginning of the dictionary, *M* if it is found near the middle, and *E* if it is found near the end.

Example: magical ______ weather ______ extreme ______
different ______ possibly ______ zoology ______

Worksheet. Look up the answers to the following questions in your dictionary. Check the correct answer and write the page number on which you found the answer.

Example: Is Newfoundland in Connecticut? Yes ☐ No ☐ Page ______
Is rain precipitation? Yes ☐ No ☐ Page ______

Dictionary relay. The teacher writes a word on the chalkboard and students quickly look up the word in the dictionary; the first person to locate the word and identify the page on which it appears wins.

Worksheet. Write two meanings for each of the words listed.

Example: plane _____

Worksheet. Write the letter that goes before and after each of the following letters.

Example: _m_ _r_ _y_ _g_

Worksheet. Fill in the letters missing in the underlined part of the word.

Example: It was necess_ry to leave the party early.

Worksheet. Number the words to show how they would be arranged in alphabetical order.

Example:
_____ castle
_____ capture
_____ casual
_____ cabbage

Worksheet. Put an X before each word that you would expect to find on a dictionary page that has these guide words.

BLACK BLAST

_____ blink
_____ blare
_____ blossom

_____ blue
_____ bland
_____ bloom

List three synonyms for each of the following words.

Example: smart _______________ _______________ _______________
mean _______________ _______________ _______________

Scrabble. Modify the rules of this popular game so that it *is* permissible to use a dictionary when trying to form new words.

F. COMMON WORD RECOGNITION PROBLEMS. When the teacher listens to a child read orally, it is usually possible to analyze the child's deviations from the printed text and to observe a pattern which identifies the student's reading problem.

1. *The Overanalytical Reader.*
According to Bond and Tinker[9], overanalysis takes two forms: (1) the child may stop to analyze all words, including those he knows at sight, and (2) the child may break words into many small parts, perhaps into individual letters, instead of using the larger elements he knows. Some overanalytic readers use a spelling method on each new word by spelling it out letter by letter before attempting its pronunciation.

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[9] Guy L. Bond, Miles A. Tinker, and Barbara B. Wasson, *Reading Difficulties: Their Diagnosis and Correction* (Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, 1979).

The overanalytical reader is generally the result of too early an introduction of detailed phonics instruction in word recognition. This overemphasis sometimes results in an imbalance between the building of sight vocabulary and word analysis. The end result is that the child either fails to build a sight vocabulary and must, therefore, attack each word he meets, or he forms the habit of analyzing all words he reads, even those words he knows as sight words. Too much emphasis on instruction with letter-by-letter sounding impedes recognition. The word *what* for example, does not lend itself to letter-by-letter sounding if the reader is to pronounce the word properly. Many words similar to the word *what* are *irregular* and must be learned as sight words.

To help children overcome their tendency to analyze words that are already known as sight words, use exercises to increase sight vocabulary similar to those described earlier in this chapter. Rapid or flash exposure of isolated words is also a helpful procedure, as is the rapid reading of *very* easy books. The reader who breaks words up into too many small parts may be aided by work in structural analysis, i.e., by noting root words, prefixes, suffixes, variant endings and compound words.

2. *The Context Reader.*
The student who reads the content words and omits many of the structure or function words or who guesses at these words in a way that fits the meaning of what he has read, is called a context reader. This type of reading problem often is the result of a limited or inadequate sight vocabulary and/or a lack of comprehension of what one is reading. In many cases, however, the student does obtain the meaning of the story, and if the meaning is obtained, the problem may be minimal.

3. *The Word-By-Word Reader.*
Word-by-word reading is a habit which is frequently formed as a result of a low sight vocabulary and a deficiency in the use of word attack skills. It may be the result of some faulty reading habits such as reversals, substitutions, omissions and additions or insertions. The result of a word-by-word reading is a reduction in comprehension and a decrease in a student's reading rate. Often a student reads so slowly and laboriously that he loses the continuity of meaning between words. To help eliminate this habit, an attempt to increase sight vocabulary is extremely important, as is practice in reading words in groups or phrases.

4. *Reading Errors.*
It is also possible to categorize the types of mistakes readers make according to their type and severity. Some of the different types of reading errors are discussed below.

a. **Reversals.**
Reversal is a term used to describe a variety of errors including: (1) confusion of single letters *(b, d, p, q, m, w, n, u),* (2) reversals of words *(saw* for *was, on* for *no),* (3) partial reversals of words *(ate* for *tea, every* for *never)* and (4) reversals of word order in a sentence *(the dog chased the cat* for *the cat chased the dog).*

While reversals are not the most common type of word recognition error, they deserve careful analysis and treatment. Usually, reversals are an indication that a child needs training to develop a consistent left-to-right sequence in reading. Harris (1980) has identified the following techniques which may be used to overcome common reversal tendencies:

- Trace, write and sound words which are frequently confused to enforce the use of the correct sequence of letters.
- Cover the word to be read with a card and move the card slowly to the right, uncovering one letter at a time so that the letters are exposed in the proper sequence.
- Underline the first letter of the word. Sometimes it is effective to underline the first letter in green and the last letter in red and to instruct the child to use the colors as traffic signals.
- Encourage the child to follow along the words with his finger, pencil or ruler.
- Draw an arrow, pointing to the right, beneath words which are frequently reversed.

b. **Repetitions.**
Some repetitions are caused by slowness in word recognition. If the child comes to a word he cannot recognize, he often repeats one or more of the preceding words to give him more time to decode the unfamiliar one. Other causes of repetitions are failure to comprehend the material being read, inattention to context and nervousness or self-consciousness in oral reading. Repetitions often result in faulty comprehension, a reduction of reading rate and unrhythmical oral reading.

Students who repeat many words should be provided with interesting materials which are easy for them to read to encourage fluency of expression. Choral reading and echoic reading may also be advantageous in helping the child overcome his tendency to repeat words unnecessarily. It should be noted that occasional repetitions are common for anyone who reads orally.

c. **Substitutions.**
According to Spache and Spache[10], there are four forms of substitutions:

(1) The substituted word has the same shape or form and the same idea as "house" for "home". This type implies that the reader is attending to the meaning of the context and word form but probably not using phonics or syllabication for word identification.

(2) The substitution as a whole word, same form, different idea as "horse" for "house". The error may indicate overdependence upon gross word form as the chief means of word identification.

(3) The substitution is a whole word, different form, different idea, as "house" for "there". This implies little attention to word form, context or any other method of word attack.

(4) The substitution of a whole word, same idea, different form, as "can" for "will". This implies good use of context but little attention to word form or phonics.

If the reader's substitutions are infrequent, reasonable, and do not alter the meaning, the teacher can safely ignore them.

d. **Additions or Insertions.**
Additions of whole words which are not included in the written text is a habit commonly found among intermediate grade students because their reading demands quick reactions, rapid reading and a degree of verbal fluency. Additions may also occur when the reader is trying to correct another error. When an excessive number of additions are made, this may be an indication of superficial reading and an overdependence on, or inattention to, context. Additions at the ends of words which change the tense or number may be indicative of lack of training in structural analysis, especially in beginning readers.

e. **Omissions.**
Omissions of words in oral reading may indicate excessive speed, a tendency to leave out unknown words, eye difficulties or carelessness. Asking a child to reread the words he omitted usually gives an indication of the probable cause. Omissions of endings may be a reflection of poor structural analysis techniques, or it may be the influence of the student's dialect.

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[10] George Daniel Spache, and Evelyn B. Spache, *Reading in the Elementary School*, 4th ed. (Boston: Allyn and Bacon, 1977).

An excellent source of activities designed to help overcome some of these common reading problems is the book *Locating and Correcting Reading Difficulties* by Eldon E. Ekwall.

f. **Miscues Vs. Errors.**

Some persons in the field of reading feel that the reader who does not pronounce each word as it appears on the written page is not necessarily making an error but rather a miscue. It may be the result of his dialect or his interpretation of what he is reading.

Kenneth Goodman defines a miscue as "an actual observed response in oral reading which does not match the expected response." He believes that if the teacher can understand how the reader's miscues relate to the expected responses, he can also begin to understand how the reader is using the reading process.

In a discussion of classroom reading, Goodman and Burke[11] state that generally, when the student's reading deviates from the written text, the teacher asks the reader to stop and reread the word or words he mispronounced. This procedure is based on the belief that a student must read exactly what is on the page and that when he does not, he must correct all deviations regardless of their effect on meaning. They suggest that all readers deviate from the text and that these deviations can be evaluated by the degree to which the meaning of the text is disrupted. These deviations, or miscues, suggest that they are not random errors, but that they are cued by the thought and language of the reader as he encounters the written material. Reading miscues are evaluated *qualitatively* as well as *quantitatively.*

Goodman and Burke have developed the *Reading Miscue Inventory.* In evaluating miscues qualitatively, the teacher may wish to consider the following questions as identified by Goodman and Burke:

- Is a dialect variation involved in the miscue?
- Is a shift in intonation involved in the miscue?
- How much does the miscue look like what was expected?
- How much does the miscue sound like what was expected
- Is the grammatical function of the miscue the same as the grammatical function of the text?
- Is the miscue corrected?
- Does the miscue result in a structure which is grammatically acceptable within the reader's dialect?
- Does the miscue result in meaning which is acceptable within the readers dialect?
- Does the miscue result in a change of meaning?

With these questions in mind, the teacher can evaluate omissions, substitutions and additions or insertions as to their degree of severity and need for remediation.

Goodman and Burke suggested that teachers consider a miscue as one aspect of how a child deals with written language rather than considering a miscue something which must immediately be corrected. As the teacher notes a child's miscues, he can begin to focus on the type of help a child needs in becoming a skilled reader.

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[11] Yetta M. Goodman, and Carolyn Burke, *Reading Miscue Inventory Manual: Procedure for Diagnosis and Evaluation* (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1972).

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11 Comprehension

To aid children in the development of comprehension abilities the teacher needs: (1) an understanding of the levels of comprehension, (2) knowledge of the skills within each level, and (3) a structure for teaching these skills.

A. LEVELS OF COMPREHENSION AND SKILLS. The three levels of reading comprehension are the literal, interpretive and critical.

1. *Literal Level of Comprehension.*
At this level the reader reads and reproduces verbally or in written form specific information from what was read. Specific literal level skills include:

- Stating main ideas, main events, main topics;
- Finding supporting details;
- Arranging sequence of ideas or events;
- Associating quotations with speakers.

2. *Interpretive Level of Comprehension.*
At this level the reader reads between the lines, predicts or anticipates outcomes, or generalizes. Specific skills at this level would be:

- Seeing relationships between time and place, setting and characters, ideas expressed in the selection, and events explained in the selection;
- Determining cause and effect;
- Anticipating outcomes;
- Making inferences;
- Speculating on what happened between events;
- Forming sensory images and impressions;
- Sensing author's intent and mood;
- Generalizing;
- Appreciating humor and plot;
- Classifying ideas;
- Comparing and contrasting;
- Identifying and evaluating character traits;
- Interpreting figurative and idiomatic language — metaphor, simile, hyperbole, personification, colloquialism and slang;
- Reacting to the mood or tone of a selection;
- Recognizing emotional reactions and motives, and
- Recognizing story problems and plot structure.

3. *Critical Level of Comprehension.*
This is the level at which the reader must evaluate and judge the information presented against an established criterion or standard. Specific skills at this level would be:

- Drawing conclusions;
- Judging quality, value, accuracy, truthfulness and style;
- Finding information to prove or disprove a statement;
- Relating story experiences to personal experiences;
- Comparing with a work of a similar nature;
- Distinguishing between emotional and reasoned reactions;

- Distinguishing fact from fancy;
- Distinguishing fact from opinion;
- Evaluating author's attitude;
- Evaluating and reacting to ideas in light of the author's purpose;
- Evaluating and solving problems;
- Evaluating summaries;
- Forming an opinion;
- Judging reasonableness and relevancy, and
- Making judgments.

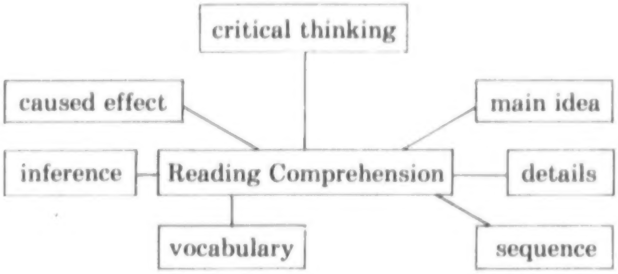
4. *Creative Level of Comprehension.*
Creative thinking includes all of the skills of literal comprehension, interpretive and critical reading, but goes beyond them to application. This level involves the reader in reprocessing what has been read in such a way that she/he gains new insights, new thought patterns, and new ideas. Specific skills at this level would be:

- Internalizing new information and extending its use;
- Applying what is learned to new situations;
- Manipulating and restructuring beliefs;
- Generating new ideas;
- Establishing an emotional response to the content.

B. PRACTICAL SUGGESTIONS FOR DEVELOPING COMPREHENSION ABILITIES. The teacher must not only teach comprehension skills but must also continually reinforce and provide opportunities for students to use the skills. Instruction of the types listed below is necessary. For too long we have assumed that children pick up these skills as a by-product of workbooks and discussions about the skills.

1. *Developing Questioning Techniques.*
Skill in asking a variety of comprehension questions does not come automatically. It takes thought and practice to design a good set of questions. Once a teacher learns, however, the phrasing of these questions comes quite easily. Well-phrased questions cause a student not only to respond to the factual information of a reading selection, but to answer queries about main ideas, understanding facts, cause and effect relationships, sequence of events, vocabulary unique to the selection, subtle inferences in material, and critical evaluation of the selection.

The following illustration demonstrates the various types of questions which can be asked:



Types of Comprehension Questions

Below is a variety of comprehension questions and examples of ways to phrase them.[1]

1. Main Idea

Type 1:
What would be a good title for this story?
What seems to be the main idea of the story so far?

Type 2:
Why does Betty call Susan?
What does Mary want Tom and Janet to do?

2. Details (facts)

Who turned off the television?
What did Freddy take to the mill?

3. Inferences (requiring one supportive fact from the text)

Why do you believe the shopkeeper was either rich or poor?
What makes you think Mr. Beard was or was not a baby when his father became a citizen?

4. Drawing Conclusions (requiring two or more supportive facts from the text)

Why do you or don't you think Mike would like truck drivers?
(Stated: Mike liked far away places. Stated: Truck drivers talked about far away places.)

5. Organization (sequence)

Type 1:
Into how many parts could this section of the story be divided? Why?

Type 2:
Name, in order, three things Mike did when the burro arrived?

6. Cause and Effect

What will happen now that the old man found a one hundred dollar bill? (cause stated)
Why did Billy's mother make him sit in a chair? (effect stated)

7. Vocabulary

Type 1:
What is a cactus?
What does "Put a damper on" mean?

Type 2:
What did the word *trips* mean in the story? (effect of drugs)
What does *green* mean in this story? (immature)

8. Critical Thinking

Based upon the facts from the article, in your own judgment should the gang war have occurred?

SOME GUIDELINES

Even with the preceding examples as a guide in question preparation, there are many pitfalls to avoid. The following hints — if examined closely — may help avoid many common difficulties encountered in designing comprehension questions.

1. Questions should follow the approximate order of information presented in the passage.

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[1] W. J. Valmont, "Creative Questions for Informal Reading Inventories," *Reading Teacher* (25 March, 1972), pp. 509-512.

2. It is generally preferable to place a main idea question first.

3. Ask the most important questions possible.

4. Check the sequence of questions to insure that a later question is not answered by an earlier one.

5. Check questions to insure that two or more questions do not call for the same response, fact, or inference.

6. A question that is so broad that any answer is acceptable is a poor question. If special questions to test divergent thinking are created, insure that reasonable, logical responses may be made.

7. A question that can be answered by someone who has not read the passage (except for some vocabulary questions) is a poor question.

8. Avoid formulating questions whose answers call for knowledge based on the pupil's experience rather than his reading or applying information given in the story.

9. Questions are generally constructed to measure the student's comprehension of written matter. Therefore, insure that accompanying pictures do not aid the student in answering questions.

10. Keep your questions short and as simple as possible. Do not include irrelevant statements.

11. Generally, state questions so that they start with who, what, when, where, how, and why.

12. Do not let "correct" grammar or syntax unnecessarily complicate the questions.

13. Avoid stating questions in a negative manner.

14. Avoid overusing questions which require pupils to reconstruct lists, such as "List five ingredients," or "Name four characters," or "Tell six places," and the like. Anxiety or memory instead of comprehension may influence the pupil's performance.

15. Avoid writing questions with multiple answers which fail to establish specifications for the response.

Poor: What happened after Susan heard the telephone?

Better: What was the first thing that happened after Susan heard the telephone?

16. Do not mistake a question that calls for the reporting of several facts or details as an organization or sequence question.

17. To learn about a pupil's grasp of the vocabulary, ask the pupil to define the word, not to recall a word from the story.

Poor: What word told you about the age of the man?

Better: What does "old" mean?

18. Avoid stating a question as if to call for an opinion when asking the pupil to relate a fact.

Poor: How do you think Skip got to the store?

Better: How did Skip get to the store?

19. If a question is asking for a judgment, phrase it as "Why do you or don't you believe. . ." Do not give away the information called for.

20. Avoid asking questions about which the child has a fifty-fifty chance of being correct — "yes-no" questions, or "either-or."

2. *Teaching Inference Skills.*
One effective approach for teaching inference is as follows:

a. Select a paragraph in which the author has inferred an idea but not directly stated it. The teacher and children read the paragraph together. The teacher then states the inference and the clues in the context of the paragraph that support the inference.

b. Using a second paragraph that all have read, the teacher states the inference and asks the pupils to supply the contextual clues that support the inference.

c. Using a third paragraph that all have read, the teacher restates the contextual clues and asks the pupils to state the inference.

d. Using a fourth paragraph, the teacher asks the pupils to state the inference and the supporting contextual clues.

These steps in developing inferences could be accomplished in one lesson or in a series of lessons, depending on the ability of the children. The important thing is that this approach provides the pupil with a step-by-step approach in using the skill and also reinforces the importance of and the relationship between the inference and the contextual clues that support the inference.

This step-by-step approach can be adapted to fit any of the skills listed earlier in this section. This is, of course, an approach to developing a skill through discussion.

3. *Teaching Critical Reading.*
Students need to be taught how to read material critically. Critical reading skills can be developed in the primary grades and then expanded in the intermediate grades.

The following skills are important in the development of critical reading.

a. **Differentiating Fact and Opinion.**
In advertising, politics and media, as well as several other reading situations, students need to apply this skill.

b. **Making Evaluations and Judgments.**
Students need to ask if the information is true, real, worthwhile and useful.

c. **Evaluating Current Issues.**
Students should realize the effect this skill has on their lives as they establish their own positions on issues such as pollution, poverty and energy, etc.

d. **Drawing Conclusions.**
Students should be made aware of the importance of basing these on accurate information.

e. **Recognizing Cause and Effect Relationships.**
Students should be able to determine the anticipated effects of a given action in relation to its cause.

f. **Recognizing Relationships.**
Students need to be made aware of likenesses, differences and links between words, people, things and events.

Students need to be taught how to read critically and apply critical reading skills. One approach to critical reading stresses 10 steps:

- State the problem.
- Find the necessary facts.
- Filter the facts (a form of evaluation).
- Organize the facts.
- Base conclusions on the facts.
- Act on the conclusions.

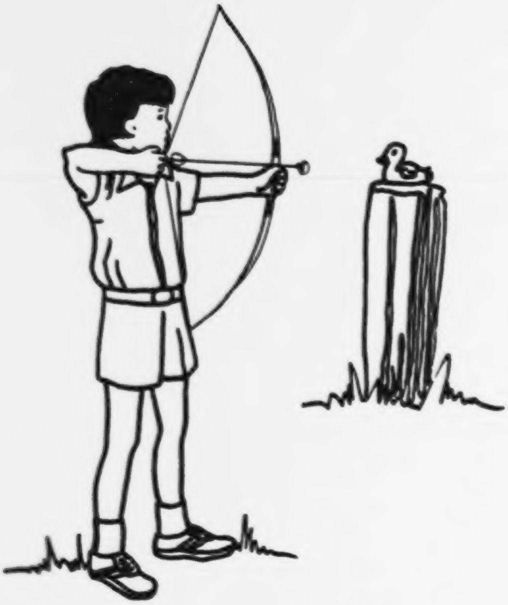
- Change conclusions on the basis of new facts.
- Always check author's qualifications.
- Always check for recency and currency of material.
- Be aware of opinion stated as fact.

If the student follows these 10 steps from beginning to end he/she will be in a better position to form a conclusion, a judgment or an opinion.

For other types of reading material it may be necessary for the reader to read with an open mind in an attempt to gather all information on a topic before forming a conclusion, a judgment or an opinion. The main difference between these two approaches is that the 10 steps may not apply to all of the topics that elementary age children may wish to investigate.

The purpose in providing instruction in critical reading and critical thinking at the elementary level is basically two-fold. The first is to help children think and read a controversial topic with an open mind. The second is to help them be more adequately prepared to cope with the vast array of materials which require critical thinking.

4. *Using Illustrations.*
Illustrations may be used in an equally effective manner for the development of comprehension skills. For example, study this illustration:



Using an illustration such as this, the teacher might ask:

- What do you see in the illustration? (literal)
- What is the boy doing? (literal)
- Is that a real duck? Why or why not? (interpretive)
- Does the boy want to kill or hurt the duck? Why or why not? (interpretive)
- How old do you think the boy is? Why do you think he is that age? (interpretive)
- What time of year or season do you think it is in the illustration? Why do you think that? (interpretive)
- Do you think the boy will hit the target with the arrow? Why or why not? (analytic)
- What do you think will happen next? Why do you suggest that? (analytic)

5. *Continually Reinforcing Skills.*

Probably one of the most effective ways of improving the comprehension of the materials read is through discussion that requires the use of the skills at each of the comprehension levels. In this way, pupils can be encouraged to expand their use of comprehension skills. Continual reinforcement of skills in all areas of their daily reading is a must if pupils are to become effective readers.

6. *Using Reading Guide Questions.*

Comprehension is likely to be more effective if pupils know in advance what it is they are to gain or understand from the reading of a given selection.

Reading guide questions can usually be placed in one or more of the following five categories.

a. The pupils are directed to read to find the answer to a given question.
b. The pupils are directed to read to verify a given statement.
c. The pupils are directed to read to ask a question that the material will answer.
d. The pupils are directed to read to decide whether a sentence or a group of sentences supplies information on a given problem.
e. The pupils are directed to read to draw a conclusion from the facts given.

These types of reading guide questions are listed here in order of difficulty, from the easiest to the most difficult.

The first type of question is parallel with the type we have asked students to answer following a chapter of study. The primary difference is the questions are used prior to the reading process.

The second type of question lends itself to the reading of material related to class discussion, Contemporary topics of interest, such as ecology or reviewing what the critics say concerning a production on television, are examples of topics that would lead to this type of reading.

The third type of question is not only excellent for guiding reading but is also an excellent diagnostic device for determining how effectively children understand what they read.

The fourth type of question gives students practice in finding supporting details which relate directly to a topic.

The fifth type of question requires the student to synthesize information he has read.

When using the reading guide questions in the classroom, the following guidelines should be kept in mind:

- The problems should be identified before the reading is done. This makes them more of a guide than a test.
- The problems used should cover items that are of importance in the selection to be read. Avoid picky detail types of questions.
- The problems should vary in the degree of comprehension they require: (1) some should require merely reproduction of the text; (2) others should require use of the ideas given by the text in order to arrive at the answer through thinking.

The answers to the reading guide questions can form the basis for class discussion following the reading of the selection. In some cases the answers to the questions form an excellent starting point for the discussion. Comprehension is more effectively developed when questions are asked in sequential order.

7. *Using a Taxonomy in Guiding Discussions.*
Any taxonomy is based on the developmental nature of thinking and proceeds, as does all learning, from the concrete to the abstract. The taxonomy suggested here for classroom use has been adapted from Kellogg's work in the area of listening comprehension and is related to the Taba Taxonomy. The questioning procedure is based on five steps, or levels: (1) *recall*, (2) *analysis*, (3) *synthesis*, (4) *evaluation* and (5) *application*.

Recall. This is the literal level, the level at which the child recalls or recognizes information from the material which has been read. The comprehension skills involved in questions at this level are those listed earlier as literal level skills.

Analysis. This level of questions would involve comprehension skills listed earlier as interpretive skills. In the sequence lesson it might be asked, "Why must the events be in this order?" In a character analysis lesson it could be asked, "Why do you suppose the character was this way?" or "Why is the character important to the story?"

Synthesis. At the synthesis level the reader is usually asked to relate the material to his own experience background. In the sequence lesson we might ask, "What might happen if we rearranged the order of some of the events?" In the character analysis lesson we might ask, "What if this character were different? What might he have done then?" This is the level at which we take a close look at motives, actions and reactions of the characters.

Evaluation. We may ask the students to draw a conclusion or to form a judgment. In the sequence lesson we could ask, "Why is it important to have the events in correct sequence?" In the character analysis lesson we might ask, "Do you know any persons in real life who are like the characters in the story?" or "Would you like to have one ore more of the characters for friends or for a next door neighbor? Why or why not?"

Application. At this level we help students decide how they might use the ideas gained from the reading and discussion. We might ask a child to solve a problem using the information from the material read, or to solve the problem creatively. Examples of questions at this level would be "How might we use having events or steps in correct sequence in our everyday lives?" or "How might we best get along or live with persons who are like the characters in the story?"

In the initial uses of this approach the teacher may become frustrated in the attempt to keep the different levels of questions separate and distinct. Of greater importance is the attempt to ask questions in a sequential and organized manner. Improvement in the ability to ask questions on different levels will come with time and practice.

Questions in the basal readers may be used as a starting point for the development of questions. The teacher should examine the questions, place them at the appropriate level and, if they meet the purposes of the discussion, use them. One of the best uses of many of the questions listed in the teacher's edition of the basal is for directed oral reading of the material.

C. OTHER ASPECTS OF COMPREHENSION

1. *Vocabulary*.
Words are abstract symbols which indirectly stand for meaning. The relationship between words and meaning is dependent on the individual who interprets the word. The individual's interpretation is dependent on his experiential background. Thus, if we say the word "dog" to a group of people, each individual in the group may have a different mental image of a dog because each has had a different set of experiences with dogs.

It must also be considered that the abstractness of words varies. Some words in our language are more abstract than others. You can develop mental images of "man," "woman," "child," "cat," "house" and "automobile." Words such as "this," "that," "was," "were," "be" and "am" cannot be represented by a mental picture. Words for which we can more readily form mental images are easier to learn.

Attention should be given to both the introduction and the continued reinforcement and use of words. Strive to create student interest in words rather than requiring that words be learned without meaning. The following suggestions should be considered:

- The teacher should stimulate students' interest in words through the use of new and interesting words.
- New words or words used in interesting or unusual ways in newspapers and magazines may be brought to class by the teacher and students. A carefully dropped "parsimonious" may be very intriguing.
- Encourage children to ask questions about words they hear and may not understand.
- Encourage children to incorporate new words into their speaking and writing.

An approach that can be highly effective for developing vocabulary and encouraging the use of the dictionary is a game called *Stump the Teacher.* In this activity the student selects any word he/she feels that the teacher might not know. The student asks the teacher what the word means. If the teacher can give an acceptable definition for the word, the teacher gets the point. If the teacher cannot define the word, the student gets the point-if he/she can define the word, spell it and use it correctly in a sentence. A student may earn additional points each time he/she uses the word correctly in a speaking or a writing situation. This, of course, encourages the reuse and reinforcement of new vocabulary. It is also a subtle way of encouraging students to select words which they will be most likely to use in speaking and writing situations.

Wordo is another effective means of developing vocabulary. This game is played like bingo on a grid of squares; each square is large enough to have a word written in it. The grids may be 3 squares (nine words), 4 × 4 (16 words), 5 × 5 (25 words) or larger, depending on the number of words the teacher wishes to use. The words to be used in the game are selected. These may be new words, words to be reinforced and reviewed, or words from any of the subject areas. The teacher pronounces the words one at a time. Students write each word in any square they choose. (The teacher should remind students that this is not a spelling test. Spelling becomes important if the students cannot read the words after they have written them). Once the grids are completed, the game begins. The teacher reads the definition for one of the words. As the student finds the word, he/she crosses it out or places a marker on it. The first student to fill an entire row horizontally, vertically, or diagonally is the winner. The teacher should be sure to check that the words crossed out match the definitions. This game has a high degree of utility as it can be used for the development of vocabulary words related to any of the content areas included in the curriculum.

Multiple Meanings. Vocabularies may be increased through learning new words and through learning multiple meanings of words already known. Many children encounter the word "run" and think only of the physical activity. *The Thorndike Barnhart Intermediate Dictionary* lists 37 definitions for "run." Consequently, a child who encounters the sentence "If I run, I will run my hose on the hose used to hose the dog run," might encounter some difficulty in interpreting the various meanings of the words "run" and "hose." Words may connote a number of meanings depending on how they are used. The only manner in which these understandings can be developed effectively is through the wide use of words with multiple meanings in verbal discussion and contextual situations.

Development of the understanding that words have meaning only in context is indicated when we consider a large number of common words such as "separate," "lead," "read," "report," "envelope," "refuse" and "present." In any situation in which words are presented for purposes of vocabulary development, the words should be presented in context. Context clues help students with both the pronunciation and meaning of the word.

The directive for a child to look up a word in the dictionary without a chance to discuss and verbalize is ineffective. The discussion and verbalization may provide the child with the context in which to isolate or identify the appropriate meaning. The verbalizing of ideas is essential to the internalizing of learning.

One approach that can be highly effective for developing multiple meanings of words is a form of sentence writing activity. Using a common word, create a sentence that uses the word more than once. Through this activity it is possible that children may discover a need to use the dictionary. Motivation for using the dictionary is internal rather than imposed. The sentences can be shared and discussed with other members of the class or group.

Multiple meanings of words can also be developed by placing the students in groups or teams. Give each group a different word and challenge each to see how many meanings or uses for their word they can find. Common words such as "run," "stock," "base" and "pin" are particularly useful in this approach. If the teacher wishes, extra points can be given for examples of these words the students find in newspapers, magazines or other sources.

Synonyms and Antonyms. To comprehend effectively, the relationship between the meaning of words should be understood. Students should be given the opportunity to expand the meanings of words through practice with synonyms (words which have the same meaning) and antonyms (words which have the opposite meaning). The teaching of these aspects, as with other forms of vocabulary, requires a great deal of discussion and use of the words in both verbal and written context. Reinforcement of synonyms and antonyms can be provided through the use of the bingo approach. Fill out the card with one set of words, and use their antonyms or synonyms as clues. Crossword puzzles can also be used to develop ability to identify synonyms and antonyms.

Synonyms can be further developed through the compilation of tired or over-used words. This is most effective if the words chosen are the words the students in the class over-use. The words can easily be found in the speaking and writing of the students. Such a list will usually include words such as "nice," "cute," "beautiful," "awful," "neat." The next step is to find as many synonyms for these words as the students can find. The words listed alphabetically along with their synonyms on pages in a loose-leaf notebook will serve as a student-developed thesaurus.

Root Words. Root words are usually developed as a part of the students sight vocabulary. If these words are presented in context rather than in isolation, there is a much better chance that the students will learn the meanings of the words. An understanding of root words and the meaning of root words assists students with comprehension.

Prefixes and Suffixes. The teacher should be aware that prefixes are important in comprehension as they change the meaning of the root word. In working with all structural forms of words, much emphasis needs to be placed on meaning. Prefixes and suffixes are also discussed on page 79. It is suggested that older children be taught to count from one through ten, plus a few more number words, in both Latin and Greek. The Latin and Greek words for these numbers are frequently used prefixes in English. The following list illustrates a number of prefixes derived from Latin and Greek words:

	Latin	**Greek**
one	*uni-* unify, unicorn	*mono-* monologue, monotone
two	*du-, di-, dic-* duet, duplicate, dual	*bi-* biennial, bicycle, bisect
three	*tri-* triple, triennial	*tri-* trilogy, triad, trigonometry
four	*quad-, quadri-* quadruplets, quadruple	*tetra-* tetrahedron
five	*quin-, quint-* quintet, quintuplets	*penta-* pentagon, pentateuch
six	*sex-* sextet, sextant	*hex-* hexagon, hexameter, hexapod
seven	*sept-, septem-* September, Septuagenarian	*hept-* heptagon, heptameter
eight	*octo-* octave, octet	*octa-* octagon
nine	*novem-, nona-* November, novena	*ennea-* ennead
ten	*decem-, dec-, decim-* decimal, decimate	*deca-, dec-* decalog, decathlon, decade
one thousand	*mill-, mille-* million, milligram	*kilo-* kilogram, kilowatt
many	*multi-* multitude, multiply	*poly-* polygon, polygamy

The following lists of additional information concerning prefixes and suffixes can be used to develop other activities which may be of assistance in extending vocabulary and comprehension.

ADDITIONAL INFORMATION CONCERNING PREFIXES

Negative Prefixes

Prefix	Its Meaning	Prefixed Word	Word Meaning
un-	not	unaware	not aware
in-	not	inactive	not active
im-	not	impassable	not passable
ir-	not	irremovable	not removable
il-	not	illegal	not legal
non-	not	nonsalable	not salable
non-	without	nonprofit	without profit
dis-	not	disobey	not obey
mis-	wrong	misspell	spell wrong
anti-	not	antisocial	not social
anti-	against	antiunion	against union

Indicating Relationships

Prefix	Its Meaning	Prefixed Word	Word Meaning
co-	with	coexist	live with
com-	with	commingle	mingle with
con-	with	converse	talk with
col-	with	collaborate	work with
cor-	with	corroborate	agree with
counter-	against	countercheck	check against
contra-	opposite	contradict	say the opposite
hyper-	overly, in excess	hypersensitive	overly sensitive
inter-	between, within	international	between nations
super-	above, beyond	superman, supernatural	above average man

Indicating Time and Number

Prefix	Its Meaning	Prefixed Word	Word Meaning
pro-	ahead (prior to)	provide	look ahead
pre-	before	prefix	fix before
post-	after	postdate	date after
uni-	one	uniform	one form
bi-	two	biweekly	two times a week
tri-	three	tricycle	three wheel
hemi-	half	hemisphere	half of a sphere
semi-	partly	semiconscious	partly conscious
multi-	many	multicolored	many colored

Indicating Direction or Occurrence

Prefix	Its Meaning	Prefixed Word	Word Meaning
retro-	back	retroactive	active at earlier date
e-	out, from	erupt	burst out of
ex-	former, out	exconvict	former convict
ex-	out	expel	force out
in- (en-)	in, into	indent, ingrown	dent in, grown in
per-	through	perennial	through the year
re-	back	return	turn back
re-	again	reprint	print again
de-	down	descend	go down
de-	away	depart	go away

Prefix	Its Meaning	Prefixed Word	Word Meaning
de-	from	derail	go from rail
circum-	around	circumnavigate	sail around
sub-	lesser	sub-official	lesser official
sub-	under	submarine	under water
trans-	across	transatlantic	across the Atlantic

Ten Useful Latin Prefixes

Prefix	General Meaning	Examples
ab-, a-, abs-	from, away from	abdicate, abrupt, abstain, absent
ad-, ac-, af-, ag-, al-, an-, ap-, ar-, as-, at- (Note that the meaning of ad- with the root has brought doubling of the letters.)	to, toward	adhere, adduce, advocate, accord, accumulate accept, affiliate, affix, affect, aggregate, aggression, allocate allude, allot, annex, announce, appear, appendage, applaud, arrogate, attest, attempt, attendance, aggravate
ante-	before	antecedent, antedate, antediluvian
circum-	around	circumvent, circumspect, circumscribe
com-, con-, col-, cor-, cog-, co-	with, together, very	coexist, correlate, colleague, congenial, cognate, commotion, commerce, complicate
contra-	against, opposing	contradict, contraband, contravene
de-	down, from, completely, reversing	demolish, desert, degrade, devoid, destiny, decentralize, decontaminate
dis-, di-, dif-	from, away, apart, negation	dismiss, dissent, disagree, distort, disperse, digress, divert, differ, diffuse,
ex-, e-, ef-	away, from, out, completely	expirate, extract, effect, expose, eradicate, educate, eliminate, efficient
ex-	former	ex-president, ex-wife
extra-, extro-	outside, beyond	extramural, extravagant, extrovert

Ten More Prefixes

Prefix	General Meaning	Examples
in-, (il-, im-, ir-) (used with nouns and verbs)	into, in, within	induce, influence, inject, illumine, immigrate, imbibe, irrigate, irradicate
in-, (il-, im-, ir-) (used with adjectives) (Note that because of pronunciation, the in- has changes to il-, im-, ir-. This explains why we must have double letters in these and similar words.)	not, opposing	incapable, insoluble, indecent, illiterate, illegal, illegible, implacable, immodest, immoral, irreverent, irregular, irrational
inter-	among, between	interact, intersperse, interrupt
intro-, intra-	inward, within	introduce, introvert, intramural
non-	not	nonentity, nonessential, nonsense
ob-, oc-, op-	over, against, facing, completely	obtrude, obstruct, object, occlude, occult, offend, oppose, opponent

Prefix	General Meaning	Examples
per-	through, throughout, very	pervade, permeate, perennial, perspicuous, pernicious, pentinacious
post-	after, following	postscript, postpone, posterior
pre-	before, in front of	prevent, preclude, preside
pro-	forward, forth, for, in favor of	proponent, processions, propulsion, proslavery, pronoun
re-	back, backward, again	respond, revoke, recur, reject
retro-	back, backward	retrospect, retroactive, retrogression
se-	away, aside	secure, seclusion, seduce, secret
semi-	half	semiconscious, semiannual, semicircular
sub- (suc-, suf-, sug-, sum-, sup-, sus-) (Note that the b has changes before c, f, g, m and p, thus giving the word a double letter.)	under, beneath	submarine, submerge, subconscious, succumb, succinct, suffuse, suffix, suggest, supplant, supply, support, subject, sustain

The prefixes and suffixes of Old English origin are simple and do not give us many new words. Here are the most common prefixes:

Prefix	Meaning	Examples
a-	at, in, on, to	away, abed, ahead, asleep, afoot
be-	about, around, all over	beset, bemoan, bespeak, besiege, belabor
for-	away, off, from	forbid, forsake, forswear, forlorn
fore-	before, previous	forethought, forehead, foreword
mis-	badly, poorly, wrong	misfit, misfire, mistake, misspell
over-	over, beyond, above	overtake, overcast, overreach, overdo
under-	below, of lesser degree	underwear, understatement, undertake
un-	not, opposing	unknown, uncertain, unkind, ungodly
out-	beyond, complete	outdo, outclassed, outrider, outlaw
with-	separating, opposing	withdraw, withstand, withhold

Seven Adjective Suffixes

Suffix	General Meaning	Examples
-able, -ible	capable of, worthy of, that may be	culpable, tolerable, laudable, forcible, legible, visible
-al, -ical	resembling, full of, belonging to	thermal, primal, residual, allegorical, radical, vertical
-ar, -ular, -ary	like, pertaining to	circular, primary, sedentary, regular
-ate	being, possessing	sedate, desolate, proportionate
-ive	like, resembling, relating to	native, active, delusive, connective
-ic, -ical	belonging to, full of	cryptic, anemic, fantastic, whimsical
-our, -uous, -ious	full of, characterized by	tumultuous, timorous, sagacious, furious

Six Verb Suffixes

-ate	become, form, treat	animate, sublimate, alleviate, perpetuate
-en	become, cause to be or have become	weaken, strengthen, moisten
-esce	become, grow, continue	convalesce, coalesce, effervesce

(We are most familiar with words which take another step to form adjectives or nouns: obsolescent, quiescent, adolescent, incandescence, fluorescence, convalescence, acquiescence.)

-ify	to make, cause, to have	glorify, fortify, deify, liquefy
-ize	make, cause to be, treat with	economize, sterilize, patronize, apologize, criticize

(Because -ize can be tacked onto so many words, it has been overworked by advertisements which have coined words like tenderize, slenderize, silkenize, softenize, sanitize, etc. Some of these words may become reputable, but they are not in the dictionary, and some persons dislike them.)

-ish	do, make, perform	punish, embellish, astonish

Seven Noun Suffixes

Suffix	General Meaning	Examples
-cy, -acy, -ancy, -ency	state, quality or condition of being what the root denotes	secrecy, accuracy, democracy, emergency
-ance, -ence	act, state, result	acceptance, vigilance, resistance, diligence, evidence, confidence
-ation, -ition	action, state, result	starvation, occupation, duration, nutrition, ignition, cognition
-ity	state, quality, condition	acidity, stupidity, virginity, gratuity, ingenuity
-ism	act, manner, state, doctrine	criticism, baptism, barbarism, fanaticism
-ist	doer, believer	atheist, deist, anarchist, monopolist
-ice	act, state, quality	service, malice, justice, cowardice

Here the most common suffixes of Old English origin:

Suffix	Meaning	Examples
-dom	state, condition, rank	kingdom, earldom, wisdom, Christendom
-en	made of, like, showing	wooden, woolen, ashen, golden
-er	one who does or acts	worker, writer, baker, driver
-ful	full of, marked by	thankful, joyful, masterful, handful
-hood	state, condition	boyhood, manhood, statehood, likelihood
-ish	rather, like, suggesting	girlish, warmish, devilish, childish
-less	without, lacking	hopeless, helpless, countless
-like	like, similar	childlike, lifelike, dreamlike
-ly	like, in the manner of	kindly, manly, strongly, madly, selfishly
-ness	quality, state	greatness, kindness, cleverness, drunkenness

Suffix	Meaning	Examples
-ship	condition, skill, office	friendship, scholarship, workmanship
-some	tending to, apt to	quarrelsome, lonesome, tiresome, winsome
-ward	in the direction of	upward, onward, forward, leeward
-th	act, state, quality	growth, width, breadth, length, warmth

2. *Emotive Language.*
An aspect of vocabulary development that is related to both comprehension and critical thinking is the noting of words or phrases that play upon the emotions of the reader. Emotive terms basically come in two forms — positive and negative. Positive emotive terms have a positive effect on the reader. They usually make him feel good or in favor of an idea. The words *home, apple pie, motherhood* and *good worker* are examples of positive emotive words. Negative emotive terms are those words or phrases which are intended to make the reader feel bad or cause him to oppose an idea. The terms *commie, pinko, snake in the grass, sinister* and *subversive* are examples of negative emotive words.

Some words can be either positive or negative depending on the context and the audience, i.e., *liberal, conservative, hawk, dove.* Another important aspect of emotive terminology is that the effect of some words may change with the passage of time. For example, during World War II, *Russian* had a positive effect as the Russians were our allies. In the 1980's this term probably does not have the same positive effect.

Advertisements provide excellent material for the development of the ability to interpret emotive terms. Students can find words the authors use to sway the potential buyer toward one product or away from another. The illustrations used in advertisements may also have strong emotional appeal. Instruction in interpreting the illustrations should also be provided.

Newspapers and magazine articles, editorials and letters to the editor provide an excellent source of material for vocabulary work of this type.

Because it is a useful tool in critical thinking and propaganda detection, the importance of developing students' abilities to recognize and understand emotive vocabulary cannot be overestimated. The children we teach today will be tomorrow's consumers and voters. This is a strong justification for including work with emotive language in the instructional program. The objective of the instruction is to help children be aware of the influential terms and to think effectively in spite of these terms.

3. *Typographical Clues.*
We must help children understand that punctuation is the author's only avenue for conveying to the reader the manner in which the author intends the phrasing. Phrasing is extremely important in conveying meaning. For example, consider the following: *John said Mary* Who is speaking? What is the speaker saying? How is the speaker saying what is being said?

Without the punctuation in the example above, it is impossible to interpret the sentence or answer the questions. This is an excellent way to indicate to children the importance of punctuation.

The period does indicate the end of a statement, but not necessarily the end of an idea. The next sentence may expand further on the same idea. One of the most effective means of helping children develop an understanding of the period is through their own writing.

The comma is important in determining the appropriate phrasing within a sentence. Consider the following two sentences:

"Woman, without her man, is nothing."

"Woman, without her, man is nothing."

The words in the two sentences are identical. Only one comma has been moved, but what has happened to the meaning? Instruction in the effective use of the comma can be presented through sentences similar to those above. The teacher may desire a different content for the sentences used. These may fit more readily into a classroom situation.

"Tom, the cat is on the roof."

"Tom, the cat, is on the roof."

The question mark and the exclamation point may be introduced in a manner similar to the period and comma. The emphasis in instruction in all four of these should center around oral interpretation because all four are clues to interpretation, phrasing and vocal inflection. Having students read their own writing makes them more aware of the need for punctuation.

There are other typographical clues that need to be included in the instructional program. These are most appropriately introduced and taught as students encounter them in their reading. Putting words in bold-fact print (extra dark print) is a technique sometimes used to indicate a new word or an important term. Words in italics may indicate a key word or special terminology. Words in quotation marks may indicate to the reader that the author is implying a meaning for the word that is not the usual meaning.

Authors may also use quotation marks to set apart words or phrases which are examples of an idea they are attempting to develop. One of the most natural approaches to learning the use and interpretation of quotation marks is through rewriting the Sunday comics. A comic strip such as "Nancy" or "Peanuts" can be rewritten by the students. The part in the speech balloons is placed inside the quotation marks and the name of the character speaking is added. Motivation is no problem in this activity.

Another kind of typographical clue is the ellipsis. Only two forms of the ellipsis are acceptable, three periods (...) or four periods (....). The three periods indicate that something has been omitted from the middle of a sentence. The four periods indicate something is omitted at the end of a sentence, with the final period indicating the end of the sentence.

4. *Figurative and Idiomatic Language.* The interpretation of figurative and idiomatic language is a problem for many children at the elementary level. The following forms of figurative and idiomatic language need to be considered.

Hyperbole. The hyperbole, or exaggeration, can serve as an introduction to figurative language. Here are two examples of the hyperbole: "When my father sees my report card, he'll go through the ceiling." "You couldn't drag me there with a team of wild horses."

One effective approach to interpreting the hyperbole is to discuss with students the literal meaning of what is being said. This should be followed by a discussion on the use of exaggeration to make a point in a more emphatic manner. Instruction should be based on the actual hyperboles used by children in the class. Identify, discuss and interpret the hyperboles and the idea being developed. This can be followed by discussing hyperboles found in the material we read.

Personification. Personification is the giving of human qualities to nonhuman forms of life. An excellent approach in helping children understand personification is through the discussion of these qualities as they occur in the materials the children read and hear. Illustrations, both commercial and pupil-created, can further the understanding of personification. The author's purpose is usually to help young children more readily relate the experiences in the stories to their own personal experiences. For more mature readers, personification is an excellent means of introducing satire, irony and a way of being facetious.

Following the identification of elements of personification in the reading materials, it is suggested that children be encouraged to use them in their own writing and speaking. Again, usage is one of the most effective means of learning.

Colloquialism. Colloquialisms are expressions used by persons in a given region of the United States. The individual who uses "fetch," "tote" or such phrases as "leave it be" is probably expressing himself in a way that is clearest and most natural for him.

An excellent approach to working with colloquialisms in the classroom is to have the class develop a dictionary of colloquial terms. How many different ways can we say the same thing? For example, if one is in Boston and wants a milk shake, why does he order a *frappe?* Through collecting colloquial expressions, the teacher can develop students' interest in language and the expressions encountered in reading material.

Slang. The study of slang is an excellent means of introducing the idea that the meanings of words change. Slang is the jargon of a group of people within our society. This, in turn, opens the entire field of etymology. Students can develop a class dictionary of current slang terminology. It is a fun project, children enjoy it, and it is an excellent introduction or reinforcement for the use of the dictionary. An additional benefit of this project is that children develop the understanding that slang is much less formal and less useful and acceptable because the definitions of slang terms are not as widely known or accepted nor do the definitions remain constant for any length of time.

Simile. The simile is a comparison of two things employing the words "like" or "as." These comparisons frequently include a human quality or feature. Have students write comparisons and include the words "like" or "as." Continue to write similes and point them out in the material children read. Over a period of time similes are learned in a natural manner. One of the most effective uses for the similes the students create is in writing messages for greeting cards, especially valentines and birthday or Mother's Day cards. The similes may also be incorporated into the children's creative writing.

Metaphor. The metaphor is a direct comparison: "The tongue is a two-edged sword." The metaphor is frequently used for descriptive purposes in the reading materials available for children. A natural approach in learning the metaphor is through speaking and writing. Once this has occurred, the metaphor is more easily located and interpreted in the reading materials.

Figures of Speech. This category includes such phrases as "between the devil and the deep blue sea," "It's six of one and half a dozen of the other," "Her face fell," "He counted noses," and "They were beside themselves with joy." Meanings for figures of speech are all on the interpretive level. Many children encounter difficulty interpreting these because children tend to interpret at the literal level.

One effective technique for helping children interpret figures of speech is to have children illustrate them. The illustrations usually depict the literal level of interpretation. The illustrations can then be discussed in light of what the author might really have meant to say. These interpretation skills develop slowly with many children and need much reinforcement.

D. MATERIALS FOR TEACHING COMPREHENSION. Although the basal readers and other commercially prepared materials are available for the development of comprehension skills, a variety of other free and inexpensive materials are also available for use. Frequently the teacher has these at home or they are available through the homes of the students. The main advantages of these materials is their interest value to the students.

Television guides (the kind that comes with the weekend issue of newspapers) are useful in developing a variety of skills. The skill development possibilities are even greater if you have issues for the same week from two different newspapers. For example:

- Using the movie review section: classify movies according to western, romance, science fiction, etc.; classify movies as drama or comedy.
- Compare and contrast two reviews of the same movie.
- Using movie reviews, read to detect motive language, figures of speech and forms of humor.
- Using the entire television guide, develop comprehension and thinking through direct questions: What would be a good western movie? Why did you pick this one? My mother-in-law is coming to visit next Monday. What might be a good program for us to watch? Why do you think so? Can you find a good movie or program for a 4-year-old child? Why did you pick that program?

Catalogs may be used for developing a variety of skills and are also excellent for correlating reading and math of a practical variety.

- Given a specified amount of money, you may purchase five items. The total of the five items may not be more than the amount you have. Be sure to fill out the order blank correctly.
- Using the automotive or bicycle parts section, plan and order the parts you would need to fix your car or bicycle.
- Using the illustrations cut from the catalog, write and illustrate your own story or book.

For elementary age children, the backs of cereal boxes provide many opportunities for highly enjoyable reading. In addition:

- Using the side panel listing of ingredients, compare two or more cereals to determine which might be the more nutritious.
- Compare the fronts of the boxes for emotive language and advertising techniques.

The teacher might also consider the use of:

- Record club catalogs
- Newspapers
- Song lyrics
- Record jackets
- A variety of magazines
- Telephone books
- All forms of tickets
- All forms of bills and monthly statements
- Different types of invitations
- A variety of maps, particularly service station road maps
- Baseball and football cards

Add to this list favorites of your own.

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12 Study Skills

Study skills are those skills which are considered essential in any situation in which a student may need to engage in independent learning. Study skills become increasingly important if students are to be able to learn effectively in content area subjects. The main categories of study skills include location skills, evaluation skills, organization skills and retention skills.

A. LOCATION SKILLS. Location skills help the student find information effectively in one resource or in a variety of resources.

1. *The Title of a Book.*
The title of a nonfiction or reference book can frequently be used to determine the contents of the book. At the first grade level this can be done verbally with the direction of the teacher. The title of the book may be read to the students, and they can share what they think will be in the book. In terms of comprehension, this involves a form of anticipating outcomes. Work in this area should continue and should be reinforced throughout all grades.

2. *Table of Contents.*
Information contained in a given section of a textbook can be located more quickly if a student uses the table of contents. Students need practice in using the table of contents to locate pages or sections of their textbook.

3. *Index.*
Instruction in the use of the index should begin as soon as children have books containing indexes. In books used at the elementary level the teacher will usually find one of three types of indexes: (1) main topic, (2) main topic, sub-topic, and (3) main topic, sub-topic, cross reference. The teaching of these should be developmental and diagnostic.

Basically, the only way to help children learn to use the table of contents and the index is through direct, meaningful experiences with these tools. Any time the children in the class develop a class book — an extension of the language experience approach — it should include a table of contents and an index as part of the book. This experience will do much to help children learn the use of these tools.

4. *Lists of Maps, Illustrations, Tables, and Figures.*
Instruction in the use of lists of maps, illustrations, tables, and figures should be provided as soon as these tools appear in the books children use. A direct and meaningful use of these lists is the most effective approach. Do not tell children what page a map or illustration is on. Have them use the lists and tell you the page. Also, lists of maps and illustrations may be included in class-developed books.

5. *Chapter, Sectional, and Paragraph Headings.*
The chapter, sectional and paragraph headings in books are useful for locating specific information. Chapter, sectional and paragraph headings indicate the contents of the material following. Children should develop the attitude of asking "Will this contain the information I need?"

6. *Footnotes.*
Children need to be taught the purpose and proper use of footnotes as they encounter them in the materials they read. Footnotes usually meet one of two purposes: (1) to cite the source of information or (2) to add additional information.

7. *Reference and Resources.*
Children need to learn what references and resources are available and how to use them. Suggested references and resources for use in the classroom include:

- The encyclopedia, for those children who can read the material it contains. For children who cannot read the material, it is excellent for browsing.
- Biographical dictionaries
- Specialized encyclopedias, i.e. *Encyclopedia of American History, Grizimek's Animal Life Encyclopedia*
- Junior Book of Authors
- Atlases, almanacs, yearbooks
- Record books such as the *Guinness Book of World Records.*

8. *Bibliography.*
Books and articles used by the author or referred to in the text are listed in the bibliography. This listing may also be used as a source of further information. Children should receive instruction in developing their abilities to work with a bibliography.

9. *The Card Catalog.*
Ability to use the card catalog can be a very useful location skill. Children seldom develop skill in using the card catalog unless they have frequent opportunity to use it. Problems in teaching the use of the card catalog can be avoided if important decisions are made in advance: (1) Is the classroom or the resource center teacher to teach the skills? How should the other teacher reinforce what is taught? (2) What aspects of the card catalog are to be taught — author, title and subject cards or only one or two of them? What instruction is to be provided in the Dewey Decimal or Library of Congress System? (3) What aspects of this system are to be included at each grade level? These need to be made at the individual building level, depending on the staff and facilities.

In situations in which card catalogs are not available for use, it is suggested that the teacher develop a simplified catalog in the classroom. This can be done with 3 x 5 cards and a recipe box. Children can at least file cards about library books they have read. This can become a rather painless form of written book report. The child will not have to write an excessive amount on a 3 x 5 card.

10. *Reader's Guide.*
If bound volumes of magazines are available in the building, provide instruction in their use. If enough different bound volumes are available for use, also teach the use of the *Reader's Guide to Periodic Literature.*

B. EVALUATION SKILLS. In evaluating material the student encounters, more than reading skills are needed. Students need to develop certain attitudes and understandings about how to read material critically. These can best be developed if classroom teachers encourage discussion and critical thinking. (See Section IV Chapter 11)

In evaluating material, students should be careful to select only information relevant to their purpose. They should be willing to question the validity of a printed statement. The teacher's attitude is extremely important in this aspect.

Several skills assist students in evaluating material effectively. These are:

- Deciding on the importance of a given statement. This can probably best be developed through class or group discussion. For example, state a topic or question; then supply the group with informative material. The students decide which statements are pertinent and which are not. This discussion should also include the reasons for selection or rejection of information. Follow-up activities should provide opportunities for students to decide the importance of a given statement independently. The reasons for the selection or rejection of a statement are equally as important as the selection or rejection itself.
- Deciding on the validity of a given statement. Validity may be based on:

  Comparison with one's own experiences. In any discussion or work in determining the validity of information, students should have an opportunity to verbalize and share any pertinent experiences they may have had. Such discussions are useful for stimulating further thinking and evaluation.

  Comparison with other statements in the same book. It is not unusual to find contradictory statements in one book. These should be pointed out to students. Students should also be encouraged to refer to all the information on a specific topic in one source. Comparison of information should be discussed. In the initial stages of instruction, almost all work of this nature should be verbal.

  Comparison with other sources. Students need to be encouraged to collect other available information on a topic before judgments, conclusions or opinions are made. This type of activity should be commensurate with the students' skills and abilities. Teachers must be careful not to insist that the child be pushed beyond the limits of either ability or interest.
- Developing the ability to distinguish between fact and opinion. The teacher's primary role here is to help children develop a basis for distinguishing between the two forms of statements. Television, magazine and newspaper advertisements; newspaper editorials, and letters to the editor are all excellent sources of material for work in this area. Class or group discussion is quite essential for the development of this skill.
- Determining the competency of an author. This is a skill that may require the use of some additional reference materials, such as a *Who's Who*, biographical dictionaries or the *Junior Book of Authors*. Children also need to become aware of the fact that newspapers and magazines frequently list the qualifications of authors. The main purpose is to help children develop a basis for judging the qualifications of a given author.

C. ORGANIZATION SKILLS. By noting the organization of materials, students can understand them better. Below are listed some techniques to help students understand how the material is organized.

1. *Main Ideas and Details.*
By determining the main idea of a selection, the student will be in a better position to comprehend the material. Main ideas can be developed by having the children read a paragraph and then stating what they feel is the most important information. This important information can later be called the main idea.

Because of the relationship between main ideas and details, it may be more effective to work with them together. In this way children can more readily see that important details work together to support the main idea.

Related to this is the development of the understanding that in a paragraph the main idea may appear in different places: (1) at the beginning, (2) in the middle, (3) at the end or (4) at both the beginning and the end. A variety of placements of the main idea occurs more frequently in materials related to content areas than in basal readers. A wide variety of materials can be used for work in identifying main ideas.

Working with main ideas and details in selections longer than one paragraph in length presents some different problems. Main ideas of the individual paragraphs may now become details. The new main idea may be a title for the selection. An effective method for helping children determine the main idea is to have them develop a title for the selection.

2. *Outlining and Paragraph Organization.*
Outlining is one method that helps the student understand how the material is organized, thus leading to better comprehension. The student needs to determine whether it keeps to the topic. Students need to be instructed on how to construct an outline. Simple outlining can be initiated as soon as children can write in the first grade.

There is a correct form to use in outlining a selection. Outlines may take the form of (1) a main topic outline, (2) a main topic, sub-topic outline or (3) a main topic, sub-topic, detail outline. The teacher must keep in mind that these forms of outlines are developmental in nature. A child who cannot develop a main topic outline is totally lost with the more advanced forms.

3. *Note Taking.*
Since outlining does not fit every situation or every person's needs, students need to develop skills in using forms of note taking other than outlining. Here are some suggestions that will help students take notes when preparing for a report:

- Write down only important facts. Put them in your own words.
- If you write the reference at the top of each slip of paper, you can check your information if necessary.
- Use quotation marks for the exact words of an author.
- Sort out your note slips into piles of facts which seem to go together best; that is, organize them.
- Write a complete sentence for each pile of notes, for each main idea.
- When you make your report to the class, be as clear and simple as you can. Help other students understand all the main ideas in your report. Be ready to answer questions.

D. RETENTION SKILLS. Students need to become aware of situations in which they need to remember ideas rather than refer to notes. It is necessary to retain only those items of importance and ones that are used frequently. For instructional purposes, we should not rely so heavily on a child's ability to memorize. The following ideas could be used by the teacher to help students improve their retention skills.

1. Be sure students are aware of the purposes for the reading — what information they are looking for.

2. Lead students to select which ideas they need to remember for a given purpose.

3. Teach students to make and use questions to guide and help in the retention of ideas. Help students develop the ability to change chapter and section headings into questions and then to read to answer these questions.

4. Teach students to paraphrase without changing the meaning. An effective approach here is to ask: "Tell me in your own words what the author said."

5. Encourage students to develop a study method, such as SQ3R or P.Q.R.S.T., whichever is satisfactory for them. P.Q.R.S.T. is described as follows:

P= preview. Look at chapter and sectional headings, illustrations, summaries and the questions at the end of the chapter.
Q= question. Following the preview, develop questions to guide the reading.
R= read. Keep the questions in mind. See if you can locate the answers.
S= study. Review the information and double check information if you are unsure.
T= test. This is a self-test. Can you answer the guide questions?

The SQ3R study method, developed by Robinson,[1] includes the steps of Survey, Question, Read, Recite, and Review.

Surveying provides a general picture of what will later be studied in detail. The student quickly skims the title, introduction, headings, visual aids, and summary.

Questioning helps learning by giving it a purpose. The student asks his/her own questions and also uses questions asked by the author.

Reading effectively requires that the student read actively, not passively. The student notes important terms, underlines or takes notes. The student uses his/her questions to keep in mind what is being read. The student shuts out distraction until he/she is finished.

Reciting is a well established aid to learning. It should be done while reading a book in order to remember what is being read. After each section, the student should summarize the main idea and the important details.

Reviewing consists of (1) resurveying the headings and summary to see if you remember the important ideas; (2) reviewing your notes briefly and adding anything that will make them clearer to you; (3) rereading any sections which are not clear to you.

E. READABILITY. In order to provide adequate reading instruction, the teacher needs to be aware of the abilities of the students and the reading level of the material. An evaluation of the readability of a book will allow the teacher to determine if a student can handle the material. Materials which are too difficult for the student to read will only cause undue frustration.

The factors which determine readability are sentence length, vocabulary, concept load, and interest. There are several formulas for assessing the readability of materials, however, none are perfectly accurate. Most formulas are based on sentence length and vocabulary. One commonly used method is the Fry Graph. This is a quick and reasonably accurate method for establishing the readability level of classroom material. In this method, several passages are selected at evenly spaced intervals throughout the materials. These passages should be representative of the style of writing used in the material.

It should be noted that the final index rendered by this graph is but an estimate and should be expressed in a range, as grade 3-4. The instructions recommend the analysis of three 100-word passages, but it is suggested that six or nine 100-word passages be used to gather a more representative sampling. Since the figures used to plot the graph are the average number of syllables and the average number of sentences, it is reasonable to suppose that the more samples taken, the more accurate the averages will be.

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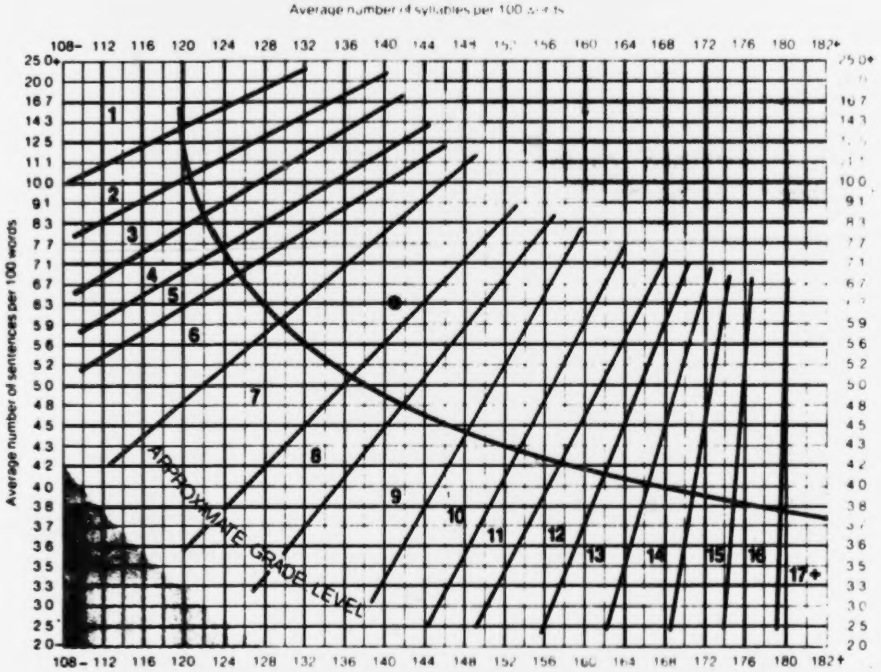
[1] Paraphrase of material by Francis P. Robinson, *Effective Study* (New York: Harper and Row Publishers, 1970), pp.34-36.

FRY GRAPH FOR ESTIMATING READABILITY — EXTENDED*

by Edward Fry, Rutgers University Reading Center
New Brunswick, New Jersey 08904



1. Randomly select three (3) sample passages and count out exactly 100 words each, beginning with the initial word in a sentence. Count proper nouns, initials and numerals. A word is defined as a group of symbols with a space on either side; thus, Joe, IRA, 1945, and & are each one word.

2. Count the number of sentences in the hundred words, estimating the length of the fraction of the last sentence to the nearest tenth.

3. Count the total number of syllables in the 100-word passage. If you don't have a hand counter available, an easy way is to simply put a mark above every syllable in excess of one in each word; then when you get to the end of the passage, count the number of marks and add 100. Small calculators can also be used as counters by pushing numeral 1, then pushing the + sign for each word or syllable when counting.

4. A syllable is defined as a phonetic unit. Generally, there are as many syllables as vowel sounds. For example, *stopped* is one syllable and *wanted* is two syllables. When counting syllables for numerals and initials, count one syllable for each symbol. For example, 1945 is four syllables, IRA is three syllables and & is one syllable.

5. Add the three totals for syllables together and divide by three to get the average number of syllables per 100 words. Do the same for the total sentences. Enter these on the graph and plot a dot where the two lines intersect. The area where the dot is plotted will give you the approximate grade level.

*NOTE: This "extended graph" does not render the earlier (1968) version inoperative: It is an extension of the earlier graph.
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6. If a great deal of variability is found in syllable count or the sentence count, putting more samples into the average is desirable.

EXAMPLE:	*Syllables*	*Sentences*
First 100 Words	124	6.6
Second 100 Words	141	5.5
Third 100 Words	158	6.8
Average	141	6.3

Readability seventh grade (see dot plotted on graph)

Looking back at the list of four factors which determine readability — sentence length, vocabulary, concept load and interest — it is clear that the readability formula considers only two factors. Formulas do not consider interest in the content or the concept load. They do not allow for consideration of the author's style of writing or the difficulty of some shorter words such as "benign" or "refuge". For this reason, after an estimated readability index has been located on the Fry Graph (or with any formula), each of these factors should be taken into consideration to determine the reliability of the graph or formula evaluation.

F. ADJUSTING READING RATE TO FIT THE PURPOSE AND MATERIAL. The rate of reading needs to be adjusted to fit different purposes and types of materials. The rate at which a student reads is an important consideration in reading efficiency. Reading rate depends upon mental ability, reading skills, familiarity of the content, difficulty of the material, and the purpose for reading a selection. There is no one rate of reading that is appropriate for all situations. A student must be taught to adjust his/her rate of reading to content of the material being read and to the purpose for reading the material. The purpose for reading should be clearly stated and the students should be provided with guidelines for choosing the appropriate rate. The following is a partial list of purposes for reading.

1. *Reading for General Importance.*
Recreational reading may be done rapidly and with a recreatory rather than a work attitude. This type of reading is done in a situation in which the student must do much reading, with the purpose of merely getting the general idea of the selection. Brief parts of the material may be skipped without defeating the purpose.

2. *Reading for Details.*
This type of reading is done in a situation in which the student reads to locate all the details on a given topic or problem. The student must decide which of the details are important to the topic or question. This type of reading is more thorough than reading for general importance. One approach is to go through a brief selection with the students. The SQ3R approach, in which material is surveyed, questions are asked and material is read, recited and reviewed is effective for this process.

3. *Reading to Form Generalizations.*
This is another study type of reading. It may be accomplished with a moderate rate of speed and should be done with a work attitude. This type of reading is done in a situation in which the student must read a selection in order to build a generalization or a conclusion. The reader must correctly relate the elements presented, distinguish statements of fact from statements of opinion, think of implications of the information, weight elements against one another and combine the proper elements to make the generalization. The teacher needs to work through a set of reading selections with the class to help students arrive at generalizations.

4. *Reading to Analyze Critically.*
This type of reading is done in a situation in which the student is asked to judge the worthwhileness of a selection or to determine whether a given story is suitable for dramatization or whether a story would be improved by the use of a different ending. The reader may need to distinguish between fact and opinion, to spot contradictions and inconsistencies, to cast aside extraneous statements, to note the author's bias or prejudice and to distinguish emotive expressions from informative expressions. This type of reading is particularly important in the effective study of the content subjects and in reading newspapers and magazines.

G. TYPES OF READING RATES. The different types of reading rates will be labeled in this guide as skimming, scanning, rapid reading, normal reading and careful reading. Each definition includes the kinds of reading situations to which they apply.

1. *Skimming.*
One purpose for reading a selection rapidly is to get a general overview of the material. Skimming may include looking at the topic and subtopic headings or reading the first two or three lines of each paragraph in the selection. Survey skimming may be helpful in answering a specific question. It is also useful in identifying and clarifying certain concepts that need to be developed. Survey skimming may be the first step in utilizing the SQ3R method. The Survey, Question, Read, Recite and Review method is discussed in detail on page 117.

2. *Scanning.*
This procedure is the locational part of skimming, and is used to quickly locate specific words, details and names that appear in the selection. Scanning is used in reference work with dictionaries, atlases, encyclopedias, almanacs and directories.

3. *Rapid Reading.*
This is similar to skimming but requires the reading of main ideas in more detail. It is useful as a review of previously read material in order to summarize, generalize and formulate new questions on the material.

4. *Normal Reading.*
The normal reading rate is used by students in preparing for daily assignments. Students need to be able to read with optimum speed and concentration to obtain the greatest possible understanding. The normal rate of reading is useful in locating specific answers and details, solving problems, grasping relations of detail to main ideas and comprehending directions.

5. *Careful Reading.*
A careful reading rate is reflective; therefore, it is slow and deliberate. The student using this rate will pause to compare and contrast, interpret material with unusual vocabulary and style, analyze the author's presentation and recall, associate and judge literary value.

The teacher should encourage students to read at their optimum rate without loss in comprehension. Students need to know and practice different rates for different purposes in order to sharpen study habits and to increase comprehension.

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13 Content Area Reading

A familiar situation: Betsy has made satisfactory progress in reading through first and second grade. Her test scores and class work show that she is learning both word attack and comprehension skills. But in third grade, her work shows a decline not only in reading but also in math, social studies and science. What's happening??!

Betsy is now being asked to do a new kind of reading and she is not prepared for it. The format of the material has changed from narrative stories to factual nonfiction. There is a new, technical vocabulary and Betsy's background has not included many of these abstract concepts found in the content areas. Betsy needs special preparation for the materials she is now being asked to read and understand.

Reading is one of the vehicles for learning in all content areas. Yet, each area presents special reading tasks to students. Students will learn more effectively if they are prepared to use the skills needed to meet and cope with specialized tasks. In this section, the content areas are discussed and activities suggested to help with preparation for reading this material.

Social Studies

In social studies students need to develop an understanding of abstract words such as democracy or rights and responsibilities. Memorizing definitions has little impact. Instead, students must relate the textbook examples of abstractions to their own experiences. For instance, a class might clarify a listing of the rights and responsibilities within their own classroom. The student would, then, work through a simulation which would change the rights for a given group. Such specific experiences will help develop a larger concept, e.g., of rights and responsibilities for society, by expanding the students' personal knowledge of the concept.

Another facet of social studies is that students can be "over-loaded" with details and not grasp the main ideas they are reading. They sometimes skip over graphic aids which could summarize important ideas. Similarly, students learn details about a concept, yet fail to see a larger relationship. In the fourth grade, students explore Indiana history and learn many specific facts about the state. Yet they may not, for example, recognize the relationship between early Hoosier settlements and present population centers. Teachers must continually plan learning situations to develop these skills.

Mathematics

Solving word problems involves specialized reading skills. To assist students in solving word problems, authorities suggest the student disregard the given figures during the first reading of a word problem. Instead, have the student focus attention on understanding the main idea of the problem. Students could use these questions to improve their focus:

"What am I asked to find out?" "What process(es) should be used?" "What is a reasonable estimate of the answer?" Another activity to help students focus on the main idea of a word problem is to have the students retell the problem in their own words.

Science

Problem-solving skills are stressed in science readings. Students need skills in following directions, establishing sequence and examining proof. Questions are asked at every step of a process: "What do I already know about this process?" "What do I expect to happen?" "Where is additional information to be found?" "Could I explain the process to another?" Central to all the content areas is the task of seeing the relationships between major concepts. Teachers should not assume that these relationships are clear to the students but plan activities and lessons to extend their understandings.

Let's consider three specific categories within which teachers should plan their content instruction. These categories are Vocabulary Development, Comprehension and Study Skills.

A. VOCABULARY DEVELOPMENT. Content teachers will likely agree that a good vocabulary is one of the keys to mastery of that particular area. The size of a student's general vocabulary continues to grow throughout life. The content teacher is a key figure in extending both the student's general and specific vocabularies.

It is impossible to teach every word that students will need in a given subject area. What students need, therefore, are strategies for decoding new words encountered.

Each content area contains two, and in some cases, three vocabularies. These are:

General Vocabulary.
General vocabulary consists of high frequency words used in all communications such as the Dolch List of 220 Words. This list contains common words which make up a high percentage of the words in beginning readers. Other lists of high frequency words are Dale's List of 769 Words, Thorndike's List of 10,000 Words, and Fry's Instant Words. If students have trouble with these words, the technical vocabularies in each content will present even more difficulty.

Specific or Technical Vocabulary
Usually the development of specific vocabulary is begun in the third grade, when the child begins to read independently in the content areas. Each of the content subjects contains its own body of technical terms, for example: "atmosphere" in science; "addend" in math; "peninsula" in social studies. Often these words are abstract and will need to be developed directly with the students. Signs and symbols used in math, science and music are yet another facet of a technical vocabulary: H_20, and NaCl; x, = and %.

Common or Non-Specific Vocabulary
Non-specific vocabulary does not fit into either of the first two types. This area includes words that have variances of meaning depending upon the content area. Consider the differences between mountain *range*, cattle *range*, and kitchen *range*. Students can be easily confused by a word which they think they know. Colloquial and archaic words and expressions also fall into this category.

1. *Word Selection.*
Vocabularies should be developed within each content area. It is unwise to assume that commercial publishers have correctly identified all the words a particular class will need. Content texts do, however, select key concepts for pre-teaching, study and reinforcement. It is imperative that teachers avoid presenting students with long word lists to be memorized out of context.

2. *Word Identification Methods.*
Students should command several techniques for decoding words and should receive specific instruction in using each either singly or in combination.

a. **Using Context Clues.**
Teachers need to give frequent directed practice in the skill of examining the known words surrounding the unknown one for clues to the meaning of the latter.

Science sample.
"You drink water every day. You are not worried about getting diseases from that water. Yet, there was a time when this was a problem. Two diseases carried by water killed many people. These disease were *cholera* and *typhoid*."

The teacher could add to that context by asking students to think about swimming in a public pool. "Do you remember walking through a foot bath before you got into the pool? What do you think that foot bath was there for?" Students could then compare yesterday with today. This comparison and contrast strengthens not only the concept that water may carry disease but also the understanding of pollution, bacteria control and chlorination — terms which could be introduced by the teacher during discussion.

Use of context clues is developed through two methods of instruction. The first is direct, systematic instruction following some of these suggestions. The second method is continual reinforcement of the use of context clues in a variety of reading situations. Not all techniques will be used every time and the teacher's task is to give the students proficiency in choosing when and where each should be used. (Refer also to Section IV, Chapter 10, for a complete discussion of context clues.)

b. **Structural Analysis.**
Structural analysis is a technique for breaking a word into its component parts for identification, these parts being portions larger than individual letters. The sequence in decoding a word by means of structural analysis usually consists of looking at the whole word, the word parts, and then the whole word again. For more information, refer to Chapter 10.

c. **Dictionary Skills.**
The term dictionary skills refers to the use of the dictionary to determine the location, pronunciation, meaning, and spelling of unfamiliar words. Instruction in dictionary skills usually begins in grade two and continues through grade six, although the use of picture dictionaries begins the development of such skills much earlier.

The dictionary is a useful study tool. All intermediate students should know how to use and interpret the information found in a dictionary. Specific skills are outlined in Chapter 10.

3. *General Suggestions for All Content Areas.*

a. Introduce prefixes, roots and suffixes which are common to your subject for use with future new vocabulary. Introduce these as you encounter words in your content which contain these units. Relate these affixes and roots to words in the students' everyday vocabulary whenever possible.

b. Introduce new vocabulary before assigning or teaching a lesson. This can be done in a variety of ways.

(1) Put the words on the board and have students conduct a word hunt in the text. When a student finds the word s/he raises his/her hand. When called upon, s/he reads the word in context and gives a definition of the term. The teacher then proceeds to build concepts around the word.

(2) Sentences from the text, putting the words in context, can be projected on the overhead. Volunteers read the sentence and define the word. Concepts are discussed.

(3) Words can be listed on the board or overhead. Students are asked to demonstrate what word attack skills would help them pronounce the words (syllabication, phonic pronunciation, roots, prefixes, suffixes). Discussion of meaning follows, and reference is made to other words with similar word parts.

(4) The teacher selects several words defined in the text by context clues and writes these as sentences on the overhead. Students are asked to find the context clue which indicates the meaning of the word. Whole paragraphs may sometimes be needed where meaning must be surmised from material preceding or following its sentence.

(5) Print polysyllabic words on the chalkboard, e.g. *automobile*, and ask students to help you divide them into syllables. Don't be concerned about doing it "wrong;" your goal is to approximate the number of sounds in the word, not to syllabicate the word exactly the way the dictionary does it.

(6) With particularly difficult words, ask the entire class to say the word along with you several times. This will reduce the possibility of individual embarrassment while each student acquires an "ear" for the word.

(7) New words or phrases may be passed out on index cards to students in a small group. The student is asked to read his/her word and use it in a sentence. Others are asked to explain the concept the word presents, if applicable, or give another example of its use.

c. Teach students to use the glossary and dictionary to locate the meanings of new words. Do not assume that they know how to use these. Used with one or two words at a time, the dictionary becomes less scary and more attractive as a tool for reading.

d. Once a new term is introduced, be sure it is reviewed often, and that students are given an opportunity to use the word themselves in speaking or in writing.

e. Be consistent in your use of terms in the classroom when several could be used interchangeably. Find opportunities to use the vocabulary of your subject to reinforce the learning of terms.

f. Use labels on models, pictures or other visual aids on bulletin boards, mobiles, etc., to reinforce understanding of terminology.

g. Encourage students to bring to class examples of subject vocabulary encountered in everyday life and reading outside your text. You can have a bulletin board on which these can be displayed.

h. Look for ways to bridge the gap between technical terminology and synonyms which students use in everyday speech *(equilibrium=balance)* and try to find applications of actual terms in the students' experience (*precipitation* is encountered in weather reports; *revolutionary* is used in the news media; *cumulative* is encountered in students' cumulative school averages).

i. Don't limit yourself to previewing words only; also use phrases or direct quotations whose meaning is complicated by the vocabulary used or the sentence structure.

j. Teachers in a given content area can assemble a list of words which are important to students' success in that area. This can be made more usable by subdividing the list into grade level exposure, so all teachers know which terms have been taught and which are new at their level. This activity would span all grade levels in that content.

k. In dealing with nouns in any content area, the following review method can be used as a quick starter at the beginning of the period, or in the last few minutes of class before the bell. The teacher asks the question, "*If you were a/an_____________________________ what would you be?*" The student must then describe himself/herself. Examples which might be used would be a Whig, an embargo, an embryo, a neutron, a paragraph, an onomatopoeia, a rectangle, a rational number.

l. To determine student strengths and weaknesses, give them a list of the unit vocabulary before beginning the unit. Have the student check the words s/he knows s/he can define. These papers can be kept by the teacher and handed back at the end of the unit so the student can underline the new words s/he has learned. Any that are not checked or underlined would indicate terms that needed reteaching before proceeding to a new unit. The students must realize that it is important to check or underline only those terms they understand, and to pass over any term about which they have doubts.

m. Discuss the etymology of important vocabulary.

n. Provide for frequent reinforcement and extension of word meanings by utilizing common types of test questions, e.g., matching crossword, completion, analogy or grouping.

4. Following is a brief list of activities that may be used as a review and/or as an informal diagnostic instrument for word identification techniques.

a. **Alphabetizing: Grades 1-2**
In each series below, number the words in the order in which you would find them in the dictionary.

________ get
________ him
________ me
________ was

________ cold
________ ten
________ pig
________ blue

________ brown
________ under
________ have
________ some

b. **Using Guide Words: Grades 3-5**
The top of each dictionary page contains two "guide words" (these are the first and last entries on that page). Guide words are to help you to quickly determine if the word you are looking up is found on a particular page. You must decide if alphabetically your word falls between the two guide words. Underline the word(s) in Column B which would be on the page indicated by the guide words in Column A.

Column A		Column B	
come-command	comedy	companion	comfort
frank-free	fret	freckle	fraud
spread-sputnik	sprout	squat	sport

c. **Determining Derivation: Grades 5-6**
Determine the derivation of each of the following words by reading the information between the brackets in the dictionary entry for that word.

radius
perimeter
quadratic

indent
parenthesis
prefix

laser

d. **Locating Accents: Grades 4-6**
Use the dictionary to note the syllable(s) accented in the following words. Note that some may have two accented syllables — a heavier or primary accent and the lighter or secondary accent.

imperfection
quintuplets
milligram
character
housewarming
laryngitis

Use the dictionary to divide the words into syllables. Note the vowel sound of each accented syllable as shown by the dictionary.

e. **Finding Forms: Grades 5-6**
Write the form of each of the following words which would be the form used to find it in the dictionary.

rectangles
retained
companies
arguing
modifier
fumigating
sterilizing
savageness
wharves

f. **Determining Meanings**
Determine the appropriate meaning from the dictionary that fits the context in which the word is used in a textbook. Direct the student to use his textbook to see how the word is used or give him sentences which include the word.

g. **Discovering Usage**
Have the students use the dictionary to see if the word has a usage other than in the subject you are teaching. Alert them to such labels as slang, colloquialisms, observations, law, and mathematics.

h. **Abbreviating**
Discuss with the students the meanings of the abbreviations n., v., adj., adv., pron., prep., conj., interm. Note the usage of a new word from the context in order to select the appropriate meaning. Also, have the students study words in your subject, noting the form and meaning when more than one of the abbreviations is used.

B. COMPREHENSION. Comprehension occurs when a reader responds to written material for a given purpose. Comprehension is influenced by three factors — the reader, the text and the assignment. The way the teacher approaches these factors will have a major impact upon the quality and the quantity of comprehension.

1. *The reader.*
The reader is affected by several variables: reading ability, intelligence, age, cognitive level, experiential background, health, interests, language competence and even the purpose for reading. While a teacher cannot address every variable, every time, particular practices can greatly improve comprehension.

2. *The text.*
While the over-all readability of a text can be determined using various formulae, it is still valuable to consider several additional factors. These factors can be revealed from text analysis:

- Passages which are organized by cause and effect are easier to understand than those with details but no causal links.
- Positive statements are easier to comprehend than negative statements.
- The organization of the text influences comprehension. Look for orderly, systematic structure.

3. *The assignment.*
This is the third variable which can influence the reading process. While the teacher knows the purpose for a particular assignment, the students are often unaware of that purpose. While teachers see an overall relationship between chapters, for example, students may be reading for the sole reason that these pages were assigned for tomorrow. Teachers can focus the students' attention on very specific purposes for reading.

Several purposes for reading an assignment are listed below.

- Memorize details (dates, sequence of events, names).
- Obtain a general understanding.
- Appreciate the author's writing style.
- Understand the character's emotions.
- Understand a process.
- Be able to relate information in the text to other situations.

Considering the diversity of these reasons, the teacher should make clear the reasons for reading. (See Chapter 9B, Directed Reading/Thinking Lesson.)

As an example, a science teacher may assign a 10-page section on "How Do You Speak?". The teacher would suggest a list of relevant terms such as; vibrate, windpipe, trachea and larynx. Some steps for guiding the reading would be:

- Scan the chapter to see headings, pictures, and diagrams.
- Read the introduction and the summary paragraphs.
- Next, read the pages completely.
- Using the word list, go back into the section and write sentences showing the meaning of each.

These suggestions will focus the students on an effective method of reading the assignment. Guidance in the process will need to be consistent until students demonstrate that they are following the steps independently.

There will still be a need to explain the purpose for reading; however, individual comprehension will show significant improvement.

C. STUDY SKILLS. Study skills are taught in connection with most basal reading series. (See Chapter 12.) Yet content area teachers often complain that students do not use these skills. The key idea is that study skills are transferable.

Study Skills are. . .

- learned abilities for acquiring knowledge.
- processes for learning.
- a way of problem solving.
- methods which can be employed in any relevant context.

While planning instruction, the teacher would be wise to examine the various reading materials, including the textbooks, for general readability. Survey the specific skills necessary to read all the materials used in that subject area.

Research shows that content texts vary significantly in readability levels. Texts often vary several grade levels within the same book. Readability checks should be made at several points in the text. Check carefully those units which prove most difficult for the students. When selecting texts for adoption, it is good to remember that the levels shown on standardized tests are frustration levels, not instructional or independent levels. If course contents are equal, it is suggested that books with lower-than-grade level readability be carefully considered. The teacher can more readily provide extension activities than s/he can redesign the course for a remedial reader. A more detailed explanation of readability is contained in Chapter 12, Section IV.

1. *Ways to Study That Work.*

Study habits are an excellent topic for class discussion. Many teacher have study tips or study habits that have been successful in academic work, and many times handout sheets concerning study tips lead to students' evaluation of their own study procedures. The suggestions below might be used as a basis for class discussion.

a. **Make and Keep a Study Schedule.**
Set aside certain hours each day for homework. Keep the same schedule faithfully from day to day. The amount of time needed for study will vary with the individual student and the courses on his/her schedule. In making a schedule, take into consideration time needed for jobs, sports activities, home chores, and favorite TV programs.

b. **Study in a Suitable Place, the Same Place Each Day.**
Is concentration one of your study problems? Experts tell us that proper surroundings will help. Your study desk or table should be in a quiet place — as free from noise as possible. Consider carefully whether music helps or hinders your studying. Do not have the TV on. You will concentrate better if you study in the same place each day. A straight back chair at a desk or table is better than a bed or couch. Being too comfortable often causes drowsiness or a wandering mind.

c. **Collect All the Materials You Need Before You Begin.**
Your study desk or table should have certain standard equipment such as paper, sharpened pencils, pens, eraser, dictionary. For certain assignments you may need a ruler, paste, scissors or a compass. Collect other reference materials you may have available. With all your materials at hand, you can study without distractions or interruptions.

d. **Don't Wait for Inspiration to Strike — It Probably Won't.**
We can learn a lesson about studying from observing an athlete. Can you imagine an athlete who is training for a mile run sitting on the field waiting for inspiration to strike? He trains strenuously every day whether he wants to or not. Like the athlete, we train for our tests and examinations by doing the things we're expected to do over a long period of time. When you do sit down to study, get started right away and realize that you will be tempted to let your mind wander, but be determined to keep it on a task until you are through.

e. **Make a Careful Record of Your Assignments.**
Why lose time phoning all over town to find someone who knows the assignment? Put it down in your notebook in a special place. Knowing just what you are expected to do and when you are expected to do it is the first long step toward completing important assignments successfully. Find one or two students in each class who you can call for information about your assignments or for help if you do not understand them.

f. **Use Trade Secrets for Successful Study.**
Flash cards are "magic helpers." On the front of a small card write an important term in history, biology or English, and on the back, a definition or an important fact about that term. Carry your flash cards with you. Periodically take them out and ask yourself the meaning of the terms. If you don't know, turn to the other side and review the answer. The "divided page" is another trick of the study trade. Make a dividing line down the center of a sheet of notebook paper. Then write important questions on the left side and the answers on the right. Use the "self-recitation" method of study. Cover the right-hand side and try to give the answer. Then check and recheck until you're sure you know the material. Review old tests to find out what type of questions you missed and why you missed them. Use this information to revise your study methods.

g. **Perhaps You've Asked, "How Can I Remember What I've Studied?" One Secret of Remembering Is Over-Learning.**
Psychologists tell us that the secret of learning for the future is over-learning. Over-learning is continuing your study after you have learned the material well enought just barely to recall it. Experts suggest that after you say, "I have learned the material," you should spend in extra study one-fourth of the original study time in extra review. In an experimental study, students who over-learned the material remembered the material four times as much after 28 days had passed.

h. **Frequent Reviews Will Pay You Well in Knowledge, Grades and Credits.**
Without review the average student can forget 80 per cent of what he has read in just two weeks. Your first review should come shortly after you study the material the first time. This early review acts as a check on forgetting and helps you remember far longer. Frequent reviews throughout the course can pay you well in pretest peace of mind.

i. **Add Willpower to Follow Through With Your Studies.**
Suggestions about how to study help us no further than we help ourselves. As with most everything in our lives, the slogan is, "It's up to you." If you try earnestly to increase your study efficiency, the improved skills should become your permanent habit. The result can be a definite improvement in your performance at school and the satisfaction that comes from making the school year one of your very best. *Remember,* the habit of study takes the work out of learning.

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Section V
Affective Dimension of Reading

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14 Guidelines for Affective Dimensions of Reading

Because the reading habits a child develops in elementary school will significantly influence his/her reading habits in adulthood, the need for direct attention by the teacher to the formation of children's reading habits within the elementary school reading program is particularly important.

The interests, attitudes, and personal values a child forms in relation to reading and literature will exert a significant influence upon the formation of reading habits. A child's interests, attitudes and values are but a starting point for teachers. From this point a teacher can motivate them into new, more diverse and more mature interests. The idea is to begin where the child's present interests are and expand them.

The development of reading habits which will serve the individual throughout his life time is unquestionably one of the most important long-range objectives for the elementary school reading program. The fact that some schools have in the past failed to achieve this objective fully is evidenced by the large percentage of adults who are able to read but who seldom read either for information or enjoyment. Perhaps this is because too many of these 'illiterate literate" adults completed their elementary school education with the notion that reading was a "subject" they had in school, where they sat in a circle and read aloud. And, perhaps they feel that this kind of reading has little relevance to their lives as adults. Or, perhaps it is because they were "turned off' by too much instruction on how to read and not enough reading for informational and recreational purposes. Whatever the reason for the lack of reading among a large percentage of the adult population, as teachers we must recognize the scope of our responsibility. As children leave elementary school, they should know not only how to read, but why to read, when to read, and what to read.

If children are expected to form the kind of reading interests, attitudes and values which result in purposeful and personally constructive reading habits, they must be exposed to reading- and literature-related experiences which are designed to promote their affective development in and through reading. This is in addition to receiving direct instruction in the skills, strategies, and mechanics of reading. Facilitating cognitive and physical growth through a planned curriculum has long been a goal of educators. It is important that equal emphasis be given to affective growth. This area of human development is too vital to be left to chance or incidental learnings. It is essential that teachers consider how students feel about reading (their attitudes) and what students like about reading (their interests).

A. GUIDELINES FOR THE AFFECTIVE DIMENSION OF READING. Teachers acknowledge that cognitive aspects of reading are developmental. Very similarly, the affective dimension of reading can be arranged into a developmental hierarchy, or taxonomy. Krathwohl[1] suggests such a sequence of developmental levels in *Taxonomy of Educational Objectives, Handbook II: Affective Domain:*

Awareness of reading
Responding to reading
Valuing of reading
Organizing personal behavior to include reading
Characterizing oneself as consistently valuing reading

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[1] David R. Krathwohl, Benjamin S. Bloom and Bertram B. Masia, *Taxonomy of Educational Objectives, Handbook II: Affective Domain* (New York: Longman, Inc. 1964).

The arrangement of the levels into a taxonomy simply suggests that before a child can achieve the long-range objectives of developing purposeful and personally constructive reading habits, he goes through various stages of affective development in relation to reading and literature. For example, the child must first be aware of the informational and recreational purposes which reading can serve. As his awareness of the purposes for reading develops, his interest in reading and his attitude toward reading begin to form. It is at the interest attitude levels in the child's affective development in reading that the influence of the reading program can exert the greatest influence. The influence of the reading program can be in a positive or negative direction! If the influence is in a positive direction, it is more likely that the child will incorporate reading and literature into his personal system of values and ultimately achieve the long-range objective of developing purposeful and personally constructive reading habits.

Although the above description of the taxonomy serves as a simplistic example of a child's affective development in reading, in reality the development of reading habits is a long and complicated process involving many interrelated variables. In the next part of this guide, basic assumptions are examined and general guidelines are presented which will guide the teacher in helping children achieve the objectives listed above. In subsequent parts of this section of the guide, various means of determining individual children's reading interests, preferences and attitudes are presented. Through the use of the suggested assessment techniques and instruments the teacher can gather data relevant to children's probable level of affective development in relation to the taxonomy. The data gathered in this manner should then serve as a basis for reading program development efforts and as a basis for selecting appropriate strategies, techniques and resources, which are listed at the end of this section.

B. GUIDELINES FOR DEVELOPING ATTITUDES AND INTERESTS. When children begin school they bring with them a wide variety of reading-related concepts, interests, attitudes and values which might be viewed as the "raw material" from which reading habits develop. And although we as teachers may have little control over the concepts, interests, attitudes and values which children have when they begin school, we can play a major role in influencing the kind of reading habits children will take with them when they leave school.

Throughout the remainder of this section of the guide, specific programs, strategies and resources which can be used to develop reading interests, attitudes and values are described. Following is a list of the basic assumptions upon which these strategies and programs are based:

Basic Assumptions.

1. One of the primary objectives for the elementary school reading program is to aid the individual child in his development of purposeful and personally constructive reading habits.

2. An individual's reading habits can be influenced by providing him with appropriate reading and literature-related activities and experiences within the elementary school setting.

3. A primary means of affecting interest in reading (and, consequently, constructive reading habits) is by determining an individual's interests so that reading instructional materials and literature-related experiences which are aligned to those interests can be provided.

4. The interests, attitudes and personal values an individual has in relation to reading exert a significant influence upon his reading habits.

5. The degree to which an individual discovers personal relevance and value in what he reads will, to a large extent, influence his attitude toward reading and, in turn, his reading habits.

After considering and evaluating the above assumptions in relation to his/her own personal and professional value, the teacher needs to consider these steps to affective instruction:

- Have a clear definition of what is meant by affective domain.
- Formulate a clear picture of the student responses/which indicate that an affective objective has been attained.
- Use this knowledge to construct evaluation tools which will measure student achievement of the objectives.
- Understand how positive conditioning can be used to encourage students to attain the objective.

The basic question that remains for the teacher is how to turn the students on to reading. There is no single approach which has been found to be consistently "more effective" than another in teaching children to read. Likewise, there is no single most effective approach for developing children's interests, attitudes, and values in relation to reading. For this reason, many approaches and strategies for affective development should be tried and should become part of the teacher's repertoire.

C. GENERAL GUIDELINES FOR CLASSROOM PRACTICE. The following guidelines for developing children's reading interests, attitudes and values through literature are suggested for the teacher. Some of these guidelines refer to aspects of the elementary school reading/language arts program; some refer to the "classroom climate for reading," and some imply specific teacher behaviors which encourage children to read independently.

1. *Use children's interests in planning instruction.*
Get to know each of your students well. Determine what interests each child has and provide reading and literature-related activities and materials which extend those interests.

2. *Assure the child's success in the mastery of reading skills and strategies.*
Develop needed skills sequentially, teaching only those skills which have not been previously mastered. Make learning how to read enjoyable. Show the child that his listening and speaking skills help him in his reading and writing skills.

3. *Help the child discover his own purposes for reading.*
Show him that reading is not a "subject" in the school curriculum, but a valuable tool for expanding and clarifying his own experiences. Help him learn why, when and what to read, as well as how to read.

4. *Read to children often.*
Set aside time in the schedule to read to children on a regular basis. Expose them to creative and colorful use of language in poetry and narrative. Introduce them to the sounds and rhythms of language. Select what you read to children with the same care you use in selecting your own reading material.

5. *Carefully select books for your literature program.*
Become familiar with the best in children's literature. Use your knowledge of children's books to select books for your classroom library and to recommend specific books to your students. Use children's literature to supplement learning of, and interest in, content areas of the curriculum, e.g., social studies, science, etc.

6. *Be an enthusiastic model of reading habits.*
Share your enthusiasm for reading and books with children. Be caught "read handed" in the act of reading for your own enjoyment.

7. *Fill the bookshelves in your classroom.*
Provide a great quantity, and quality, of books and other printed matter within your classroom — especially paperback books. Beg, buy, borrow or make books, but by all means make them available and accessible to children.

8. *Provide time for independent reading.*
Allow time within your schedule for sustained silent reading of student-selected reading materials.

9. *Encourage children to read and share what they have read.*
Set up "sharing" and "celebrating" activities through which children can stimulate the interests of their classmates.

10. *Develop a literature program.*
Design a literature program for your school and classroom which will help children realize the potential good literature holds for widening the reader's world.

Within the guidelines listed above are many specific strategies and techniques for developing children's reading interests, attitudes and values. In the next part of this guide, techniques for assessing children's interests and attitudes are discussed. In the following sections, the guidelines listed above are elaborated on and expanded, and specific activities, strategies and techniques related to the guidelines are suggested.

15 Assessing Children's Reading Attitudes and Interests

Unquestionably, the best way of determining a child's interests is by getting to know him well. The importance of knowing each child personally cannot be overemphasized. To understand the reading interests of children it is necessary to consider each child separately.

A. INFORMAL ASSESSMENT. The concept of assessing informally throughout the year has particular relevance in relation to discovering children's interests and attitudes since the most useful information about interests and attitudes must be gathered by the teacher on a daily basis. Within every school day there are countless opportunities for determining children's interests and attitudes. Conversations between children, products of their creative activities, class projects, trips to the library, group sharing activities and a variety of other situations in which children are involved in self-initiated activities provide rich resources of information about their interests and attitudes toward reading. The teacher who is aware of the opportunities which all of these situations provide will not only make a concerted effort to observe and interact with children in a variety of learning situations, but will also record those observations on a daily or weekly basis. The teacher is more significant in developing positive attitudes and broadening interests than the techniques, practices, and materials used. He/she may ask these questions:

- **Do I value each student as a reader and respect his efforts to become a better reader?**
- **Do I allow each student to express his/her fears and dislikes?**
- **Do I consider the feelings of my students and give my attention to their needs and interests?**
- **Do I convey to my students the point that they need not be afraid to make mistakes?**
- **Do I believe that each student can achieve some measure of success in reading?**
- **Do I change methods and materials whenever student progress indicates that those being used are not producing desired results?**
- **Am I aware that I communicate my feelings about reading both verbally and nonverbally to students?**
- **Am I able to make each student feel success in reading, regardless of the reading level?**

Children's interests are based on their own experiences. They grow out of all kinds of experiences: those shared with parents, shared with other children, shared with TV, movies, travel, or those of solitary play and experimentation. Interest means the tendency to give selective attention to something. Some possible conditions to develop interest might be:

- **Pleasure in the activity itself.**
- **A feeling of ease and security.**
- **A feeling of accomplishment.**
- **A means of social approval.**

B. DETERMINING READING INTERESTS AND PREFERENCES. Student assessment takes place in both the affective and cognitive domains. All areas of student behavior/performance should be determined in order to make accurate judgments concerning student abilities in reading. It is important that more than one assessment device be used to ascertain a comprehensive view of a student's abilities.

While there is no real substitute for first-hand knowledge about the child which is gathered through informal observation and interaction with the child, various techniques and instruments can be used by the teacher to aid him in discovering children's interests. Interest inventories, checklists, questionnaires, structured and formal interviews, circulation records from school or classroom libraries, records of books the child has read and autobiographies written by the child provide valuable clues to reading interests and preferences. Two basic ways to measure interests and preferences are for the teacher to evaluate:

- what a student says by using questionnaires
  inventories
  interviews
- what a student does through the use of observation
  interactions
  checklists

On the following pages are a series of assessment instruments designed to survey a student's interests, attitudes, and cognitive performance.

1. *Interest Inventories.*
Included under the general category of interest inventories are a wide variety of specific instruments. Basically, interest inventories consist of a series of questions, or incomplete sentences, which are designed to elicit responses from the child about his experiences. Content for the interest inventories could include:

- free time activities
- play activities
- likes and dislikes
- hobbies
- TV preferences
- movie preferences
- clubs
- pets
- trips
- wishes
- dreams
- interactions with peers, siblings, parents

An interest inventory may be administered orally or used as an outline for an interview conducted by the teacher; or it can be duplicated, and children can read and record their own responses. It is a diagnostic device which enables a teacher to determine the interests of a student.

Whichever method of administration is used, it is usually desirable to have the child respond as spontaneously as possible so that he does not spend undue time and energy speculating on what response the teacher would *like* him to give. By asking the child to respond rapidly, the so-called "halo effect" will, hopefully, be reduced. Since the usefulness of the child's responses will be determined by his candidness in answering the questions, it is also important that the conditions under which the inventory is administered be such that the child feels free to respond frankly.

In addition to the question-type inventory discussed above, an incomplete sentence, or open-ended, inventory may be very useful to the teacher. Following are several examples of items which might be included in an incomplete sentence interest inventory:

- I like ....
- It's fun to ....
- After school ....
- Reading ....
- TV ....
- I think that school ....
- I would read more often if ....
- My father and I like ....
- My mother and I like ....
- My friends and I like ....
- My favorite toys and games are ....
- My favorite movies are ....
- I have visited ....
- I would like to visit ....
- I read stories about ....
- I do not like to read about ....
- If I could have three wishes, I would wish for ....
- When I grow up I would like to ....

Again, this type of inventory may be administered orally, or read and completed by the child. As with the question-type inventory, it is important to have the child respond as spontaneously as possible.

Whichever format or method of administration is selected for the interest inventory, the teacher will probably derive most value from an inventory which he himself constructs for use with a particular individual or group. Such as inventory can be related to a specific purpose the teacher has, and the vocabulary used in the items can be adjusted for the particular children who will use the inventory. Items to be included in a teacher-made inventory should be selected carefully to avoid embarrassing particular students.

In order to derive maximum utility from an interest inventory, it is helpful to review and summarize the child's responses, listing several topics or even specific reading materials or books in which the child may be interested. This summary can then be recorded on a file card so that it can be readily referred to for planning instructional strategies, or for aiding the child in the selection of reading materials. This data should be updated and changed throughout the year. The information can then be passed from one class to another to help in continuous support of a student's interests.

A few samples of interest inventories and a pupil interview guide follow.

MY READING INTERESTS*

1. Name ______________________ Grade ______________________ Age __________

2. Check the library or libraries below that you can use. Double check those you do use.

☐ Community Library ☐ School Library
☐ Church Library ☐ Any Other Library

3. How many books have you borrowed from friends during the last month? ______________
Give some titles: ____
____
____

4. How many books have you loaned to friends during the last month? ______________
Give titles of some: ____
____
____

5. Give some titles of the books in your home: ______________________________
____
____

6. From what sources, other than those mentioned above, do you obtain books? Check below:

☐ Buy them ☐ Rent them
☐ Gifts ☐ Exchanges

7. What are your hobbies and collections? ______________________________
____

8. What do you intend to be? ______________________________

9. Name the five magazines you like best. ______________________________
____

10. Name the three movies you saw last. ______________________________
____

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*Strang, Ruth. *Diagnostic Teaching of Reading.* (New York: McGraw Hill Book Co., 1969), p. 115.

INTEREST INVENTORY (PRIMARY-GRADE LEVEL)*

Oral or Written Form

1. Name ______________ Grade ______ Teacher ______________
2. What is the name of your favorite book which someone has read aloud to you? ______________
3. What kinds of books and stories do you like to hear read aloud to you? ______________
4. What is the name of your favorite book which you have read for yourself? ______________
5. Have you ever gone to the library and picked out a book to take home and read? ______________
6. Do you have a library card? ______________
7. What are the names of some of the books which you own at home that you like to read? ______________
8. What are the names of your two favorite television programs? ______________
9. Do you like to read the comics in the newspaper? ______________
10. What do you really like to do after school? ______________
11. What do you like to do best on a Saturday? ______________
12. What kind of games do you like to play? ______________
13. Do you collect anything? What kinds of things do you like to collect? ______________
14. Do you enjoy reading for fun? ______________
15. Where does your family like to go for a summer vacation? ______________
16. What do you like to do best with your mother? father? ______________
17. Name the state or country farthest away that you have visited. ______________

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*Miller, Wilma H., "Reading Diagnosis Kit", (New York: The Center for Applied Research in Education, 1974), p.238.

INTEREST INVENTORY*

Intermediate Level

Name ______________________ Grade ______ Teacher ______________________

1. What sports do you like to play? (circle your answers) Do you like to watch? (underline your answers)
    a. Roller skating
    b. Skiing
    c. Football
    d. Baseball
    e. Basketball
    f. Swimming
    g. Bowling
    h. Horseback riding
    i. Boating
    j. ______________

2. Do you have pets? What kinds? ____

____

3. Do you collect things? (circle your answers)
    a. Foreign money
    b. Stamps
    c. Rocks
    d. Butterflies
    e. Dolls
    f. ______________

4. Do you have hobbies and pastimes? (circle your answers)
    a. Writing letters
    b. Sewing or knitting
    c. Dancing
    d. Singing or playing a musical instrument
    e. Playing cards
    f. Working on cars
    g. Repairing things
    h. Drawing and painting
    i. Driving a car
    j. Cooking
    k. Making things with tools
    l. Experimenting in science
    m. Going for walks
    n. Fishing
    o. Hunting
    p. ______________

5. What school subject do you like best? ______________________________

6. What school subject do you like least? ______________________________

7. What is the best book you ever read? ______________________________

8. Do you enjoy reading? ______________________________

9. Do you like to have someone read to you? Who? ______________________________

10. Apart from lessons, about how much time each day do you spend reading? ______________

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*Indiana University, *Source Book of Evaluation Techniques for Reading* (I.U.: 1972), p. 90-93.

11. Do your parents encourage you to read at home? ____________________

12. What are the names of some books you have been reading during the last two months? ________
____

13. Do you have a card for the public or school library? ____________________

14. How many books do you have of your own? ____________________

15. How many books have you borrowed from friends during the last month? ________
Give titles of some ____________________
____

16. How many books have you loaned to friends during the last month? ____________
Give titles of some ____________________
____

17. About how many books do you have in your home? ____________________
Give titles of some ____________________
____

18. From what sources, other than your home, libraries, and friends do you obtain books?
1. Buy them ________
2. Gifts ________
3. Rent them ________
4. Exchanges ________

19. Underline the kinds of reading you enjoy most: history, travel, plays, essays, adventure, stories, science, poetry, novels, detective stories, fairy tales, mystery stories, biography, music, etc.

20. What kind of work do you want to do when you finish school? ____________
____
Are you going to college? ________ Where? ____________

21. What newspapers do you read? ____________________

22. What sections of the newspaper do you like best? Check below.
1. Sports ________
2. Funnies ________
3. Stories ________
4. News ________
5. Editorials ________
6. Other ________

23. What magazines are received regularly at your home? ____________
____
(underline those which you read)

24. Name your favorite magazines. ____________________

25. Name the comic books you read and underline your favorites. ____________
____

26. Where do you get your magazines and comic books? ______________________________

27. Name three movies you last saw. ______________________________

28. Name the three radio or TV programs you like best. ______________________________

29. Name the state or country farthest away that you have visited? ______________________________

30. Which of the following have encouraged you to read? Check below.

    1. Parents ____________
    2. Teacher ____________
    3. Librarian ____________
    4. Hobby ____________
    5. Friends ____________
    6. Pals ____________
    7. Club leader ____________
    8. Relatives ____________
    9. Club Work ____________
    10. Other ____________

PUPIL INTERVIEW GUIDE

Grades 4-8

Date ____________ Interviewer ______________________

Name ______________________________ Grade ________ Sex ________

Teacher ____

Introduction

1. Tell be about yourself. Although I will take notes, your answers will not be told to anyone else.

2. Tell me about your family.

School Program

3. If you were going to be the teacher in your room tomorrow, what would you like to teach? Why is that important?

4. What did you study in (reading) this year?

5. What part of reading do you do best? What part of reading gives you the most trouble?

6. Of all the things you have done at school this year, what have you enjoyed the most?

7. Is there anything that teachers place too much importance on?

8. Do you read at home?

   What do you like to read about?

   Where do you get what you read?

9. Do you presently have a book checked out of the school library? What is it? Why are you reading it?

10. Do you check books out of the public library? Describe the last time.

11. Has your teacher helped you in reading lately? How?

Students

12. Does your teacher let you make decisions? (Give examples)

13. Describe the situation the last time a teacher complimented you.

14. When a teacher is fair, how does he/she act? What is a teacher like who is really *fair* to everyone?

15. What do you do after school?

Self Perception

16. Of all the things you do in school or out, what are you the most proud of?

17. If a good friend were accurately describing you, what would he say?

18. Among those you know well, what adult do you admire most?

2. *Other Sources of Information.*
In addition to information which is derived through diagnostic teaching techniques and interest inventories, the teacher can also derive valuable clues to children's interests from library circulation records. By analyzing such records it is often possible to determine a child's pattern of interest. And, although the books the child has read may not deal with the same topics or content, they may have other similarities of style, format, or theme.

Informal contacts with parents as well as questionnaires and parent-teacher conferences provide opportunities for the teacher to learn a great deal about the child which could not be learned in the school setting.

Autobiographies written by children can also serve as a useful source of information about their interests and preferences. Creative writing topics and free reading choices are additional sources of information concerning interests.

The utilization of the above strategies for determining individual children's interests will result in useful information in most cases. However, within any given classroom there may be some children who appear to have well-defined interests which can be capitalized upon for building interest in reading. While it is certainly true that some children lack the desire to read — or at least are not interested in those things which teachers think they should be — it is equally apparent that every child is interested in something.

Before turning to a discussion of the ways in which children's attitudes toward reading can be assessed, it is well to note that interests, like attitudes, are constantly subject to change as a result of new experiences. The assumption must not be made that as a teacher you need only survey children's interests at the beginning of the year and then assign, or ascribe areas of interest to a given child. Certainly a major aspect of the teacher's role includes helping children to expand their present areas of interest while providing experiences which help them develop new interests.

C. ASSESSING ATTITUDE TOWARD READING. The extent to which a child discovers the personal benefit which can be derived from reading will affect, and be affected by, his attitude toward reading. Thus, a child who has developed a negative attitude toward reading and/or reading instruction may also develop an "avoidance reaction" which could preclude his development of constructive reading habits. As is the case with any instructional endeavor, an attempt by the teacher to positively influence a child's attitude toward reading must begin with the collection of relevant data. Interpretations of the data should be based on consistent patterns and should be made from more than one assessment situation over a period of time.

1. *Observation.*

The primary means of gathering data about a child's reading attitude is by observing his responses to reading in a variety of instructional and noninstructional situations. In observing, a teacher may develop a checklist to guide the process. He/she may include and keep records of the following:

a. how children value reading
b. ways children use reading
c. evidence of application of reading skills
d. work/study behaviors
e. tension signs in a reading setting

Rowell (1972) developed *A Scale of Reading Attitudes Based on Behavior* which can serve as a useful aid to the teacher in gathering attitudinal data related to reading. Rowell's observation instrument as well as other attitude assessment tools are at the end of this section of the chapter.

2. *Attitude Questionnaires.*

Other means of assessing reading attitudes are also available to the teacher. Numerous questionnaires have been developed which are intended to "measure" children's attitudes toward reading. Although the data which results from the use of some of these questionnaires is generally no more valid than data derived from continued observation by an experienced teacher, questionnaires can provide potentially useful information about children's attitudes toward reading.

A questionnaire format is less time consuming than an interview or observation due to the fact it may be administered to the whole class at one setting. Some categories to include might be:

- school in general
- books and reading
- the teacher
- the reading environment
- class activities
- work/study/habits

An example of an attitude questionnaire which has been widely used is the San Diego County Inventory of Reading Attitude (San Diego County Department of Education, 1961.) It consists of 25 "Do you like to. . .?" type items which are presented in written format. The child's "yes" or "no" responses to the items yield a stanine score which is purported to be indicative of his attitude toward reading.

Fiddler[1] (1974) constructed and standardized an instrument for assessing sixth grade pupils' attitudes toward reading. The Fiddler instrument differs markedly from other attitude questionnaires because of the more rigorous validation procedures used in its construction, and because of the way in which it is administered. Of the 100 items in the questionnaire, only 20 are directly related to reading attitude.

These 20 items are based upon Fiddler's adaption of Krathwohl's taxonomy of the affective domain. (See page 135). Because the purpose of the Fiddler questionnaire is disguised by the 80 "distracting" items, the probability of a "halo effect" is greatly reduced. Thus, it is likely to yield a more accurate indication of a child's attitude toward reading. Other examples are on the following pages.

3. *Other Techniques.*
Two other techniques for assessing attitudes toward reading are pairing instruments and summated rating scales.

With a pairing assessment instrument, reading is compared in terms of preference with other activities in which the student is likely to engage. With each pair, the student selects the activity he prefers if he had only one option. An available instrument (using pictures) is the PRIMARY PUPIL READING ATTITUDE INVENTORY by Eunice N. Askov (Kendall/Hunt Publishers, 2460 Kerper Boulevard, Dubuque, Iowa 52001, $2.95)

The summated rating scale allows a student to respond on a four or five point scale to a series of statements about reading. Response categories are generally: strongly agree, agree, undecided, disagree, and strongly disagree. Betty S. Heathington (1975) developed two scales of this type.

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[1] Fiddler, Jerry B., *The Standardization of a Questionnaire to Ascertain the Attitude Toward Reading of Sixth-Grade Pupils* (Buffalo, NY, 1974).

READING ATTITUDE INVENTORY

Questionnaire

	YES	NO	COMMENT
Do you like to tell stories?			
Do you think it is a waste of time to make rhymes with words?			
Do you like to read when your mother and dad are reading?			
Do you like to read newspaper comics?			
Are you interested in what other people read?			
Do you like to read before you go to bed?			
Do you think that you are a good reader for your age?			
If you could do anything you want to do, would reading be one of the things you would choose to do?			
Is reading your favorite subject at school?			
Do you think that you are a poor reader?			
Do you like to have someone read to you?			
Can you remember the ideas and talk them over when someone reads to you?			
Do you like to read catalogs?			
Do you think that most things you do are more fun than reading?			
Do you like to read aloud for other children at school?			
Do you think reading recipes is fun?			
Do you like to read all kinds of books at school?			
Do you like to answer questions about the things you have read?			

ATTITUDE

Incomplete Sentences

DATE: ______________ GRADE: ______________ NAME: ______________________________

Directions: Complete the following sentences to express how you really feel. There are no right answers or wrong answers. Put down what first comes into your mind. Work as quickly as you can.

Today I feel ....

I like to read when ....

I get angry when ....

I wish people wouldn't ....

My idea of a good time ....

I wish my parents knew ....

School is ....

I can't understand why ....

I feel bad when ....

I wish teachers ....

I wish my mother ....

I'd rather read than ....

To me, books ....

I look forward to ....

I like to read about ....

On weekends, I ....

I don't know why ....

To me, homework ....

A SCALE OF READING ATTITUDE BASED ON BEHAVIOR*

Name of Student ____________ Grade ____________ Date ____________

School ____________ Observer ____________

Directions: Check the most appropriate of the five blanks by each item below. Only one blank by each item should be checked.

	Always Occurs	Often Occurs	Occasionally Occurs	Seldom Occurs	Never Occurs
1. The student exhibits a strong desire to come to the reading circle or to have reading instruction take place.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
2. The student is enthusiastic and interested in participating once he comes to the reading circle or the reading class begins.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
3. The student asks permission or raises his hand to read orally.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
4. When called upon to read orally, the student eagerly does so.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
5. The student very willingly answers a question asked him in reading class.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
6. Contributions in the way of voluntary discussions are made by the student in the reading class.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
7. The student expresses a desire to be read to by you or someone else, and he attentively listens while this is taking place.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
8. The student makes an effort to read printed materials on bulletin boards, charts or other displays having writing on them.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
9. The student elects to read a book when the class has permission to choose a "free-time" activity.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

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*Rowell, C. Glennon, "An Attitude Scale for Reading," *The Reading Teacher,* 25 (February, 1972), p.444.

	Always Occurs	Often Occurs	Occasionally Occurs	Seldom Occurs	Never Occurs
10. The student expresses genuine interest in going to the school's library.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
11. The student discusses with you (the teacher) or members of the class those items he has read from the newspaper, magazines or similar materials.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
12. The student voluntarily and enthusiastically discusses with others the book he has read or is reading.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
13. The student listens attentively while other students share their reading experiences with the group.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
14. The student expresses eagerness to read printed materials in the content areas.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
15. The student goes beyond the textbook or usual reading assignment in searching for other materials to read.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
16. The student contributes to group discussions that are based on reading assignments made in the content area.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

D. UTILIZE ADDITIONAL DATA. Whether data pertaining to individual children's attitudes are gathered through informal observation or attitude questionnaires, such data must be utilized to plan reading- and literature-related activities if it is to be helpful in affecting children's reading habits. If, for example, you find that several children in your class appear to view reading and/or reading instruction rather negatively, it will probably be more beneficial for these children if you place greater emphasis on developing their attitudes toward reading. This can be done through informal "counseling" or "group therapy" in which reading attitudes and habits are the focus of the discussion, and through the use of the various strategies contained in the next section of this guide which are designed to develop children's reading attitudes and interests.

16 Developing Attitudes and Interests: Strategies and Techniques

A. PROVIDE SUCCESS WITH READING. Many children enter school with considerable eagerness to learn to read. The fact that children want to be able to read on the first or second day of school presents the kindergarten or first grade teacher with an apparent dilemma of maintaining children's enthusiasm for learning to read while developing initial reading skills. The manner in which a teacher deals with this dilemma will have considerable potential impact on students' long-term attitudes toward reading.

1. *Use experience charts.*
Children need to experience some success with reading even before they are able to independently employ decoding strategies. No matter what approach or specific instructional materials are to be used for initial reading instruction, early success with reading can be provided by developing "experience charts" which contain stories or experiences that are dictated by the children and recorded by the teacher on the chalkboard or chartpaper. (Refer to Section IV Chapter 9)

2. *Put captions on pictures.*
Children can also dictate captions or brief stories related to their creative artwork. The experience charts or captions are then "read," either by individuals or chorally by the group.

3. *Label classroom objects.*
Labeling items in the classroom, such as chairs, tables, windows, etc., can also help children establish sound-symbol correspondences and sight recognition of the visual form of words.

By using experience charts, writing captions to pictures and labeling classroom objects, children can experience some degree of early success with reading even before they can actually employ a decoding strategy.

4. *Make each student feel important.*
The more personal the instruction, the better the student will feel. A significant strategy here is to suggest regularly to a student a selection that was chosen especially for him. The positive effect of saying "Here is something that fits you" is inestimable. There is a positive correlation between levels of reading achievement and levels of self-concept. The teacher can help enhance the student's positive self-concept by following these guidelines:

Personal: accept the student as a valued person
avoid negative comments
make the student's success known to others
work with parents to provide a positive home environment
be aware of individual interests and attitudes

Instructional: minimize the difference between reading groups
compare the student's progress against himself rather than with the group
utilize information about student interest
utilize carefully chosen materials that the student can read
utilize diagnostic-prescriptive teaching techniques to eliminate skill weaknesses
avoid use of reading as punishment
provide time for recreational reading
guide children to books in which they encounter problems and people relating to their own world.

B. **CREATE A CLASSROOM CLIMATE FOR READING.** Most teachers and parents would agree that there are many benefits which can be provided to primary grade children by reading to them which they could not derive for themselves because of their lack of reading skill. Yet for many reasons — not the least of which is often cited as a lack of time — the practice of reading to children seems to decline rapidly when children reach the upper primary and intermediate grades. *Children of all grade levels can profit from and enjoy being read to.* Even older children should have a regular story time. The teacher can read a book to the class or introduce them to several books by reading enough to capture their interests. Reading books aloud helps provide depth and balance to a literature program.

1. *Share different types of literature.*
Reading to children serves many purposes. In addition to the more obvious purposes of modeling good oral reading habits and building children's attentive listening skills, reading to children allows them to experience literature which they might not be able to read, or be inclined to read for themselves. Oral reading to children can also wet their appetites to read more on their own. An exciting chapter or section of a book which is read aloud can often stimulate children to read the entire book themselves. In addition to providing exposure to specific books, reading to children can also introduce them to creative and colorful use of language in prose and poetry, introduce new vocabulary and concepts and acquaint them with the variety of language patterns found in written and oral communication. Refer to Chapter 18 for appropriate books to read aloud to children.

2. *Discuss to promote interest.*
Few adults would enjoy being closely questioned about what they have read; yet, some teachers seem to have an inclination to "interrogate" children after a story has been read to them. Ask a few well-selected questions which serve as a stimulus for discussion of the major concepts developed or implied in the selection. In addition to reviewing some of the major aspects of the selection, such questions should also focus upon the feelings and emotions the selection evoked, as well as some of the elements of form or theme which make the story or poem especially appealing.

A discussion of E.B. White's *Charlotte's Web* could, for example, focus primarily upon the concepts of "true friendship" and "the cycle of life." And, while it is true that the events in the story are essential for the development of these concepts, the children's feelings about the events are of great importance. *Charlotte's Web* is a good example of a book which has considerable potential for evoking an emotional response from children. The part of the story which describes the moments before Charlotte's death often brings tears. In this case, further discussion of how the children feel is entirely unnecessary since they have already demonstrated the depth and intensity of their feelings!

3. *Use media, tapes and neighbors.*
Many excellent cassette tapes, phonograph records, films and correlated filmstrips and tape recordings of children's books are available commercially and can be used independently by children. (Chapter 18 contains a listing of these resources.) For example, a cassette recording of Sendak's *Where the Wild Things Are* (Weston Woods), as well as other recordings, can be placed in the classroom "reading corner" or "language arts center" along with several copies of the book and a tape recorder. An individual child, or a small group of children using a listening station with jacks for multiple head sets, can then listen to the recording while "reading along" in the books.

Tape-record the first half of a book. This helps a child "get into" a book. Readers with very limited reading ability may be able to finish the book on their own after listening and reading along with the first half.

"Homemade" tapes can be made of an entire selection or just enough of it to stimulate children to finish reading a selection on their own. Such a recording can be made by a child who is reasonably fluent, by the teacher or by someone in the community who will volunteer his raspy or mysterious voice. Live reading by older children can accomplish a similar effect and expand the attractive opportunities the child has to share from the literature available.

Having children read to other children can be used to good advantage for building interest in reading. While this can be done within the classroom, among classmates, it is often mutually beneficial to have older children read to younger children. This not only provides the older children with an eager audience for which they can refine and use their skill in oral reading, but it also widens the younger children's experience with literature and allows them to see older children modeling reading behaviors that they can emulate.

4. *Keep Informed About Books.*

The sheer number of children's books on the market might tend to be somewhat intimidating since a teacher cannot reasonably hope to read all of them. Because the time required to read children's books and the availability of the books are important constraints which teachers face in familiarizing themselves with children's literature, the numerous sources of book reviews and other compilations of children's books are helpful. Most periodicals pertaining to elementary education include reviews of children's books. Reviews can be found, for example, in the following periodicals:

Language Arts
The Reading Teacher
Childhood Education
The Instructor
Teacher
Early Years
Learning
The Horn Book Magazine
Bookbird
Bulletin of the Center for Children's Books
Booklist
School Library Journal

Reviews of children's books can also be found in the *New York Times* twice a year, and the *Chicago Tribune* on Sunday.

With the variety of sources of book reviews available, the teacher should have little difficulty selecting books with which he wishes to become more familiar. In addition to the book review sources listed above, there are numerous reference publications which contain annotated lists of recommended children's books. Publications of this type are listed in Chapter 18.

Another useful source in selecting children's books is a listing of Newbery and Caldecott award winners. This list is included at the end of this section. The John Newbery Award is presented annually to the author whose book is selected by a special committee as the year's most distinguished contribution to American literature for children. Excellence in illustration is the criterion used in awarding the annual Randolph Caldecott Medal. Generally speaking, many of the Newbery Award books are most appropriate for independent reading by children in the upper intermediate grades but could be read to younger children. Many Caldecott Medal books are geared to the interests and preferences of preschool and primary grade children since they contain numerous illustrations of a very high quality.

In addition to the Newbery and Caldecott awards, several other awards for outstanding children's books are presented on a regular basis. Information about these awards is contained in the Children's Book Council publication entitled *Children's Books: Awards and Prizes.* The Young Hoosier Book Award began in Indiana in 1974-75 as a result of the "Right-to-Read" impetus. Each year a committee selects 20 titles from the suggestions received from students, teachers, and librarians. In April the students in Indiana vote for their favorite book. The purpose of the Young Hoosier Book Award Program is to stimulate the recreational reading of elementary school children and to encourage cooperation among administrators and teachers in broadening the reading program. A list of the winners can be found in Chapter 18.

The publications on children's books are helpful in conserving a great deal of time and energy which might otherwise be spent stumbling through the stacks of a library in search of the best books to incorporate in a classroom literature program. Consulting a school librarian or the children's librarian of a university or public library will also be quite helpful. However, the use of these references and resource persons is only a starting point. If you want to become truly familiar with children's literature, you will have to read it!

5. *Read Children's Books.*
Before you embark on a continuing regimen of reading children's literature, stop for a moment to consider why you need to be familiar with books for children. How can you hope to interest children in books which you have not read yourself? Or, how can you select the "right" books to read to your students if you are not aware of the many exciting possibilities? Furthermore, how can you refer an individual child to a specific book which could help him gain insight into a particular problem he has if you are not aware of the "bibliotherapeutic" qualities inherent in many children's books? Finally, how can you decide which books contain the "stuff of which childhood is made" if you have not sampled many of these books yourself?

Once you have convinced yourself of the importance of becoming familiar with children's literature and have developed a basic reading list, the next step, of course, is to begin reading. Read as many books as you have the time and interest to read. Visit an elementary school library and the children's book room of a university or public library. Check out books just as you expect children to do, and read them. A list of recommended books for children is contained in Chapter 18.

6. *Set Up a File on Children's Books.*
Start your file on children's books by selecting those books which you feel are the best books. Briefly summarize the plot of the book on an index card; list some of the major concepts the book develops, and, where appropriate, list any bibliotherapeutic value you think the book might have for specific children. Make your book notes as detailed or as brief as you like so long as they are useful to you in selecting books you want to read to children or use in a class library.

In considering which are the "best" books to include in your classroom literature program, take into account the various aspects of style, theme, characterization and plot which are normally used in literary analysis. Try to evalute a book from a child's point of view. Ask yourself whether the book seems to be relevant to the lives of children in your classroom, whether it is likely to have some impact upon them, whether it meets some basic psychological need — including the need to laugh, or, equally important, whether it's simply fun to read.

Several factors within the classroom have an important influence upon children's reading attitudes and interests and, in turn, their reading habits. These factors include the attitude toward reading and books which the teacher demonstrates daily, the availability and accessibility of a wide variety of reading materials within the classroom and the provision for multiple opportunities and encouragement for children to read and "share" the pleasure they have derived from books they have read. The sum total of these factors is what might be called the "classroom climate for reading." More broadly conceived, the climate for reading can extend far beyond the walls of the classroom.

7. *Create an Appealing Physical Environment.*
Creating an attractive physical environment in the classroom which encourages reading must also be given some consideration. The classroom library collection should be housed in a prominent location in the "reading corner" or "language arts center." A carpet, some plants, a few lamps and comfortable seating can make the classroom library more inviting to children. Furnishing the reading corner can be a real adventure. If no permanent shelving is available in the classroom, shelves can be made from bricks and boards or sturdy cardboard boxes (such as liquor cartons or egg cases) covered with contact paper. Revolving bookracks of the type drugstores often use to display paperback books are particularly useful and can sometimes be obtained free if you are willing to haul them away.

Teachers who are particularly skillful at "scrounging" materials for the classrooms have found that an old bathtub filled with pillows, a refrigerator carton with one side cut out or an industrial-type cardboard drum with a hole cut in its side will attract some children to the reading corner. If extra tables are needed for the reading corner, they can be made from large telephone cable spools which can often be secured free from the telephone company. Seating can be made from large potato chip cans padded on top and attractively painted. Also, don't overlook the local Salvation Army, Goodwill Industries and used furniture stores as a source of low-cost furnishings for the reading corner.

While the physical environment is important, even the most attractively designed language arts center and a wide variety of reading material in the classroom will not accomplish the purpose of developing reading habits if there is no time for children to read and share books they have read.

8. *Start a Sustained Silent Reading (SSR) Program.*
Opportunities for Sustained Silent Reading of self-selected materials need to be built into the classroom schedule so that reading does not become merely something for children to do when they have finished their "work." It is suggested that at least as much time be devoted to applying reading skills through independent reading as is devoted to the development of those skills through direct instruction. Regardless of what specific reading instructional program or approach is used to develop reading skills, independent reading within the classroom serves as a necessary and logical application of those skills.

Silent independent reading is probably the simplest way of individualizing reading instruction. It is a means of creating a feeling in the child that he and his interests are important to the teacher and to reading activity. Help in the selection process is provided by the teacher if a child appears to need guidance or if he asks for specific suggestions of what to read. While children are reading silently, the teacher is also reading. During an SSR period everyone reads, and there is total silence.

9. *Encourage Children to Share Reading Experiences.*
Individualized reading includes "sharing" or "celebrating" activities which children engage in after they finish reading a book. There are many creative ways in which children can share the books they have read. Some examples include:

- Making puppets
- Using flannel board figures to dramatize a story
- Creating a colorful mural, collage or mobile
- Constructing a diorama or mobile
- Making a poster or writing a television commercial to advertise a book
- Having informal chat with the teacher
- Showing pictures from the book and explaining them
- Having a "read in" when the child selects a partner and time is set aside for them to read to each other
- Making and discussing a timeline of the story
- Selecting categories for classroom book awards such as: scariest book, funniest book, weirdest book
- Selecting a panel of students to discuss the problems that characters in a book encounter
- Producing a play based on the book
- Writing book reviews for the school newspaper
- Sharing "creations" (artistic or drama) in other environments such as the library, teacher's lounge, office, halls, or cafeteria.

Other interesting means of sharing books include the use of films, filmstrips or videotapes. Scenes from a book, for example, can be dramatized or reconstructed using animation techniques, then recorded by children on "super 8" film or videotape for later viewing. Filmstrips can be produced by drawing directly on exposed 35mm film with felt pens, or they can be produced photographically with a half-frame 35mm camera by shooting all frames horizontally and having film developed as a continuous roll. "U-make-it" kits are also commercially available for producing filmstrips. Although such multi-media methods of sharing may appear to be prohibitively expensive, it is surprising how inexpensively filmstrips, films and videotapes can be produced and how much enthusiasm they generate among children.

In helping children decide upon the best means to interest other children in the books they have read, it may be helpful to suggest several possible ways and discuss with them how and when each might be used. Several different means might be suggested during one period of time, and other means suggested later. As children gain experience with various methods, they can devise their own techniques to generate interest in the books they have read. They need only be reminded that their mission is to "sell" the book to classmates.

The best advice which can be offered to teachers who want to foster the development of children's reading habits is to direct their professional efforts toward *inspiring* rather than requiring.

10. *Model Reading Habits.*
As a teacher, your own attitude toward reading will be one of the most significant factors in determining the classroom reading climate. While you might be able to pretend to be interested in books and reading by pseudo-enthusiasm, you will probably not be able to fool many children for long. Children are quick to detect insincerity, whatever form it takes. Regardless of what you say about reading in general, or about specific books, your own personal behavior in relation to reading will speak loudest.

So, let your actions do the talking; let children see that reading is an important part of your personal life as well as a necessity in your profession. Bring your own reading to school to fill your "spare moments" — be they ever so few. Instead of going to the teacher's lounge during your "free period," occasionally relax with a book in a comfortable chair in your own classroom reading corner. (And don't be afraid to be "caught" there when your class returns from its gym period.) Share your enthusiasm for reading with children. Catch up on some personal reading while children are reading; share what you have read with them.

11. *Make Books Available.*
If children are expected to develop purposeful and personally constructive reading habits, they must have a sufficient quantity and quality of books at their fingertips. Ideally, every elementary school classroom should contain its own collection of books suitable to the range of interests and preferences of each child in the class. A useful rule of thumb might be to have at least fifteen books in the classroom collection for each member of the class. The fact that many elementary schools have adequate schoolwide library facilities and provisions for regularly scheduled visits by individual classes does not reduce the necessity of creating classroom libraries where books and other reading materials are attractively displayed in a manner which invites their reading. Arrange books under broad headings and level of difficulty.

A classroom library can be built by borrowing a basic collection of books from the school or public library or by asking children to donate or loan used paperback books. Many excellent titles by such children's authors as E. B. White, Ezra Jack Keats, Laura Ingalls Wilder and Maurice Sendak are currently available in paperback. The attractiveness of paperback books in the classroom was illustrated by Fader and McNeil (1968), who described a successful reading program for reluctant readers built around the use of paperback books.

12. *Promote Book Club Memberships.*
Children's book clubs also offer inexpensive paperback books. Many of these book clubs offer "dividend books" when a given number of books is ordered by children in a class. A listing of children's book clubs is included at the end of chapter 18. These dividend books can be donated by the class to the permanent collection in the classroom. In addition, children are often willing to share their own books by donating or loaning personal copies of books to the classroom library so that other children can read them. Although it is probably wise to check with parents first, the practice of donating books can be encouraged by having children autograph the inside cover accordingly: "Donated by ________________________________" or "On loan from the private library of ________________________________."

13. *Make Books.*
Books written and illustrated by members of the class are often the hottest items on the shelves. Furthermore, there is usually no communication gap between the author and the reader of such books. It is fair to assume that children know what other children would like to read about, so there is no problem of a credibility gap either. Place library pockets in the back of each student's book and allow the books to be checked out by other members of the class.

14. *Encourage Book Borrowing.*
Allowing children to borrow books from the classroom library to take home is a practice which should receive consideration since this often encourages more independent reading. A simple check-out system for the classroom library can be instituted by having the children sign their names on a file card or in a notebook kept in the classroom library. Some teachers have found that they can successfully use an "honor system" for lending books. Whatever system is used, it is a good idea to keep the loan policy flexible so that children will not be discouraged from borrowing books.

15. *Promote Book Ownership.*
Book ownership can be promoted through paperback book clubs; through schoolwide "book fairs" where children can trade, buy or sell used paperbacks, or through a program such as the Smithsonian Institute's "Reading Is FUN-damental" (RIF) program, which provides children with books either free or at a substantially reduced cost. The experience of many teachers and the success of various "Reading Is FUN-damental" projects throughout the country have demonstrated that children's motivation to read can be substantially increased by emphasizing the pleasure of reading through personal ownership of books.

16. *Include a Variety of Printed Media.*
When stocking your classroom library, don't overlook other sources of printed media such as pamphlets, magazines, catalogs, newspapers, and content area material. Although comic books are still a controversial item in many situations, they can sometimes be used to attract the attention of reluctant readers. Paperback books containing cartoons, such as Schulz's "Peanuts" series, can often serve a similar purpose. Once children begin the habit of reading, they can be encouraged to undertake more substantive reading. The classroom library might also contain children's periodicals such as *Children's Digest, Highlights for Children, Jack and Jill, Cricket,* and *Child Life,* as well as copies of the daily newspapers, catalogs, pamphlets and other printed media. A list of children's periodicals is included at the end of this section.

C. PLAN FOR THE AFFECTIVE DIMENSION. Many techniques exist for teachers interested in discovering and enhancing children's feelings about learning. The following suggestions are easy to use and teacher-tested.

- Begin a day by asking students:
  Name one good thing that happened since you left school yesterday.
  Did you see a good TV program last night? Did you hear or read something interesting you would like to tell the class?

- Share experiences at the end of the day:
  What was the best thing that happened today? The worst?
  Who did something nice for you today? What did you do to help someone?
- Have students draw their hands on paper and place ideas in finger outlines:
  Favorite toy/food/song/movie/book/TV program, sports they play, a friend's name, words that best describe them, words they would like for people to say about them, wishes, etc.
- Ask students to draw an animal (real or fantasy) that best represents them and explain it.
- Find out students' favorite places to be alone, relax, play, shop, have fun.
- Give students a 24-hour circle to complete with pictures and words explaining how they spend their time.
- Propose a trip to a place and ask students what they would pack if they could bring one to three things or whom (what famous person, storybook character) they would take with them.
- Keep a list of "favorite" words and a list of "unfavorite" words on the chalkboard and ask students to keep adding to it.
- Reverse roles and ask students to teach an idea or skill (tie a shoe, blow-dry or roll hair, change a tire, wash dishes).

Certainly teachers can, and should, provide children with much external motivation to read by employing the strategies described throughout this section of the guide. Modeling good reading habits, exposing children to a variety of literature, making a wide range of reading material available within the classroom and providing time within the school day to read and share books are highly recommended practices. If creatively applied by the teacher, all of these strategies can be used successfully to encourage and inspire children to read independently.

Rather than placing "stars" on a chart containing each child's name to indicate the number of books each has read, it is preferable to focus upon the reading accomplishments of the entire class. This can be done by making a chart entitled "Books We Have Read" or by making the head of a "bookworm" which is placed on a colorful bulletin board under the caption "Help Me Grow by Reading." The children can then add to the bookworm through body segments on which are printed the titles and authors of books they have read. A large class notebook of all the books read can be placed in the reading corner and contain reviews of books. The notebook can be a source for group discussion about select books read by the students.

Learning why to read is primarily a matter of discovering for one's self the many purposes of reading in relation to one's own personal needs and values system. Helping children make this discovery is not something which can be accomplished in three easy steps; nor can it be accomplished by simply telling children why other people read. Each child must be aided in making this personal discovery for himself.

For a child, learning why to read begins early in life with his first exposure to the medium of print. Gradually, the preschool child who is exposed to printed media by being read to, or through television programs, realizes that books and other printed media contain meaning-bearing symbols which represent speech, and which are arranged in an order that conveys information and/or enjoyment. In addition, most children see persons significant to them engaged in the act of reading. Whether that person is reading a newspaper, a magazine, a book, a recipe or the *TV Guide*, through observation the child begins to form his own concepts of why people read. When dealing with children and their reading, the question of "what" children read should not take precedence over "why" children read. We need to be aware of both areas of concern and the implications of each area.

If a child has not seen people read, or if no one has read to him, he may be totally unaware of the many purposes and applications for reading. Opportunities need to be provided throughout the elementary grades for children to develop their own purposes for reading. Class discussions might center around the pleasurable aspects of reading as a potentially rewarding use of leisure time and the applications of reading for the acquisition of new knowledge and understanding.

In order for discussions of the purposes of reading to be most productive, such discussions must be related to the children's present life circumstances. It must be remembered that children are living *now* and that they have a whole range of personal needs, interests and values to which reading and literature can be related. Children who are fortunate enough to have teachers who help them discover the ways in which their reading skill can be applied to fulfill their current needs and interests are much more likely to learn why to read.

When the teacher stimulates reading and when a variety of reading materials are readily available, many opportunities can be found within the school to get children "into" reading and thereby help them discover for themselves why to read. Teachers who effectively stimulate children to read tend to make frequent and spontaneous references to reading such as the following: "Hey! Speaking of that, did you read that new book we just got in the classroom library" or "Have you checked some of the reference books we have to find some information which would help you with your project" or "Here's a book you might be interested in reading. Why don't you take a look at it and see if you think it might be helpful."

When children continually meet the right book at the right time, they usually have no difficulty discovering the relevance of reading to their lives.

17 Developing a Literature Program

Defining a good literature program poses multiple problems. Tastes, interests and levels of ability vary greatly, as do our individual notions of what constitutes quality. Basal programs in reading and in English usually attempt to offer variety and quality across many reading levels. But their limitations must be overcome by a school and a classroom library. A combination of the basic texts and the library resources ought to enable each student and teacher to feel positive about the literature program. Such a positive feeling would arise from the following realizations:

- I can find selections that match some of my interests.
- There are evident opportunities for me to explore other areas.
- Easier or more difficult selections are available if I need them.
- I am being taught to cope with and enjoy the different kinds of literature that school and society offer me.
- My classmates and I can share our feelings and thoughts related to our reading.
- Each of our personal contributions is valued, no matter what its level of abstraction.
- Pleasant surroundings, cooperative spirit, adequate and appropriate materials allow me the opportunity to learn effectively.

A. USE DATA ON CHILDREN'S INTERESTS AND ATTITUDES. A reading and literature program should be built around the observed needs and interests of students. For example, it should develop feelings about poetry for an inner city child. He ought to discover first that there are poems about cars and buses and splashing in street puddles. Once he has a sense of self-identity in books, he can be led to the enchanted isles and across the real fields of the world. A teacher must be aware of children's need and interests. These needs and interests can be used as a starting point for a literature program. Traditional favorites of elementary school children — animal stories, mysteries, adventures — can serve as backup material for any children's collection. A representative listing of children's books is included at the end of this section. Using his knowledge of children's literature the teacher can extend children's interest horizons through many and varied literary sharings.

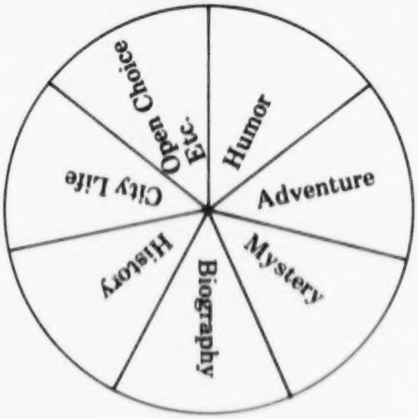
B. PROVIDE FOR SLOWER AND FASTER STUDENTS. Within any third or fourth grade classroom, there is usually a significant diversity in reading vocabulary, ranging from first grade levels to seventh and eighth grade levels. Thus, some children in the class have a reading vocabulary that suggests very easy books to start and some have a reading vocabulary that enables them to read books more typical of upper grade levels. The section on resources helps the teacher deal with the reading level problem. (See Chapter 18.)

Vocabulary load is an important factor in the design of a literature program, but it must be coupled with that of concreteness and abstraction. Some children are able to respond primarily to those images which appeal to their senses and are thus concrete in presentation. For each of us, concreteness is needed in certain areas. If we are not highly trained in mathematics, for example, our reading about math must start with concrete items before we can deal with the abstractions in algebra and calculus. *Unselfishness* is an abstract term that may impart little or nothing to a child. Yet, he can respond with a very positive feeling about the spider's concern for the pig in *Charlotte's Web.* In this book Charlotte demonstrates unselfishness in a concrete way. Some children need that concreteness in all that they read.

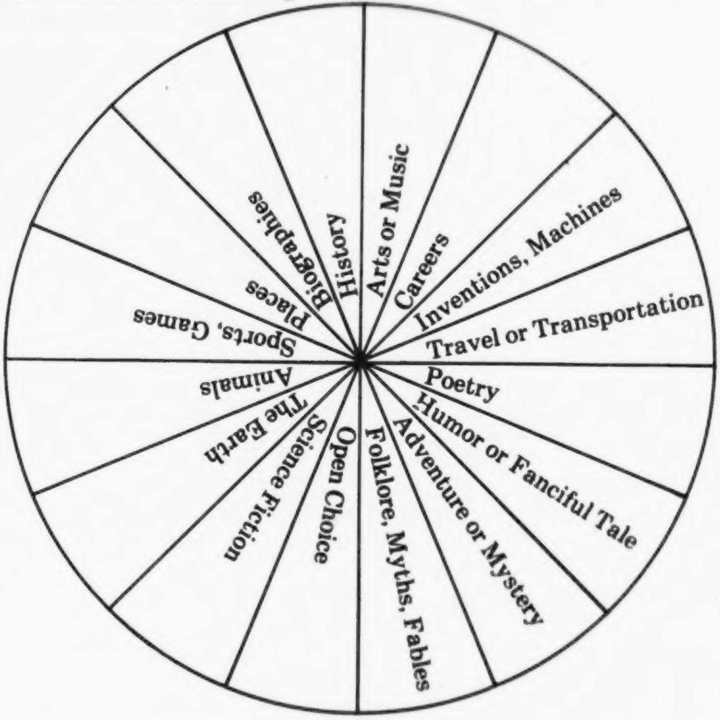
In a group discussion about different books or about the same book, each child, with his own perspective, both concrete and abstract, can participate in book talks. Through listening to views of others, students can strengthen their understanding of books.

C. **INCLUDE PERSONAL OPTIONS.** One of the major positive feelings a child should experience in the literature program is a sense of freedom. He should have options that lead him in personal directions as well as options that lead to mutual discussion with classmates. Simply telling a child that he can choose his own selections often has a significant effect on his attitude toward the task. At the same time the teacher can exercise direction over that reading.

By having each child complete a reading wheel, for example, the teacher directs the child into a variety of selections. A circle cut into pie-shaped slices identifies the categories to be read. The child selects books, perhaps with guidance from the teacher, and records the title and author on the appropriate pie slices. A short reporting device is all that is necessary, then, to give the child a sense of completeness. Preferably that report should encourage the child to describe what he thought were the best features of the books.


Open Choice Etc.
Humor
Adventure
Mystery
Biography
History
City Life

Upper elementary students may design their own category wheel to record books read, or they may want to use one like the following:


History
Arts or Music
Careers
Inventions, Machines
Travel or Transportation
Poetry
Humor or Fanciful Tale
Adventure or Mystery
Folklore, Myths, Fables
Open Choice
Science Fiction
The Earth
Animals
Sports, Games
Places
Biographies

Revolving book discussion groups formed among classmates provide another means for giving children options. Each month a new set of book selection leaders (book discussion leaders) is selected, and each of them identifies the book that he wants to read and discuss. The other students write down their first, second and third choices, and the teacher puts together mini book discussion groups, limiting the groups to no more than five or six children. A new group of leaders starts the process anew the next month.

Whatever technique is used, a child should have the additional freedom to pursue a topic or an area of literature that intrigues him. The teacher guides him in being assured that the pursuit leads the child in moving toward the goals established for the program and for the child.

D. EVALUATE THE AFFECTIVE DIMENSION. One of the surest ways of making a conscious effort to build positive feelings about reading and the literature program is to make it a point of evaluation. Both a year-end evaluation and a continuing assessment throughout the year should be included.

The year-end assessment might follow these lines:

- Are there clearly written objectives for the affective dimension?
- Are children's interests and attitudes surveyed?
- Is there evidence that the assessment is used in designing instruction?
- Is there a wide range of materials to appeal to interests?
- Are children conscious of their options and freedom to read?
- Do children make use of available resources?
- Do children share their reading with their classmates?
- Is there evidence of continuing concern for establishing interests and developing positive attitudes?
- Do students receive positive feedback from the teacher?
- Do teachers receive positive feedback from the students?

By the use of checklists, interest inventories, anecdotal records and objectives in lesson plans the teacher can demonstrate a continuing concern for positive attitudes and the appeal to the interests of the children. A school system and the individual teacher should establish objectives related to interests, attitudes and values. The teacher and the school system should have an ongoing plan to evaluate the affective dimension of the reading process. Once teachers and administrators acknowledge the importance of the affective by placing it among items to be evaluated each year, it is likely the child will see his interests and his attitudes opening to broader, more positive perspectives.

18

Resources for Developing Attitudes and Interests

This chapter contains seven lists of resources which the teacher will find useful in promoting children's affective development in reading.

A. SOURCES OF FILMS, FILMSTRIPS, RECORDS AND TAPES.

ACI Films, Inc.
35 West 45 Street
New York, NY 10036

Alfred Higgins Productions, Inc.
9100 Sunset Blvd.
Los Angeles, CA 90069

American Library Association
50 East Huron Street
Chicago, IL 60611

Audio/Brandon
Division of Macmillan, Inc.
34 MacQueston Parkway South
Mount Vernon, NY 10550

BARR Films
3490 East Foothill Blvd.
Pasadena, CA 91107

BFA Educational Media
2211 Michigan Avenue
Santa Monica, CA 90404

Bullfrog Films, Inc.
Box 114
Milford Square, PA 18935

Churchill Films
662 North Robertson Blvd.
Los Angeles, CA 90069

Coronet Films
65 East Water Street
Chicago, IL 60601

Encyclopedia Britannica
Educational Corporation
425 North Michigan Avenue
Chicago, IL 60611

Film Images
1034 Lake Street
Oak Park, IL 60301

Films Incorporated
1144 Wilmette Avenue
Wilmette, IL 60091

Grove Press
Film Division
196 West Houston Street
New York, NY 10014

Grover Film Production
PO Box 12
Helotes, Texas 78023

Henk Newenhouse Films
1825 Willow Road
Northfield, IL 60093

International Film Bureau
332 South Michigan Avenue
Chicago, IL 60604

Janus Films
745 Fifth Avenue
New York, NY 10022

McGraw Hill Films/Contemporary
1221 Avenue of the Americas
New York, NY 10020

Miller-Brody Productions
342 Madison Avenue
New York, NY 10017

National Educational Television
Film Library
Indiana University
Bloomington, IN 47401

National Film Board of Canada
680 Fifth Avenue
New York, NY 10019

Pyramid Film Productions
Box 1048
Santa Monica, CA 90406

Society for Visual Education, Inc.
1345 Diversey Parkway
Chicago, IL 60614

Sterling Educational Films, Inc.
241 East 34th Street
New York, NY 10016

Texture Films, Inc.
1600 Broadway
New York, NY 10019

Weston Woods
Weston, CT 06880

B. SOURCES OF RECORDINGS

American Library Association
50 East Huron Street
Chicago, IL 60611

Caedmon Records
461 Eighth Avenue
New York, NY 10001

Children's Reading Service
1078 St. John's Place
Brooklyn, NY 11236

CMS Records, Inc.
14 Warren Street
New York, NY 10007

Educational Audio-Visual, Inc.
1 Cirmont Avenue
Thornwood, NY 10594

Educational Record Sales
157 Chambers Street
New York, NY 10007

Enrichment Materials, Inc.
50 West 44th Street
New York, NY 10036

Folkway Records
121 West 47th Street
New York, NY 10036

London Records, Inc.
539 West 25th Street
New York, NY 10001

National Council of Teachers of English
1111 Kenyon Road
Urbana, IL 61801

Pathways of Sound, Inc.
102 Mount Auburn Street
Cambridge, MA 02188

Spoken Arts, Inc.
95 Valley Road
New Rochelle, NY 10804

C. AIDS FOR SELECTING CHILDREN'S BOOKS

Best Books for Children: Pre School Through Middle Grades. John T. Gillespie and Christine B. Gilbert. New York: Bowker, 1978.

The Best in Children's Books: The University of Chicago Guide to Children's Literature, 1973-1978. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1980. An annotated listing of recommended children's books from the *Bulletin of the Center for Children's Books* at the University of Chicago.

Best Selling Children's Books. Jean Spealman Kujoth. Metuchen, N.J.: The Scarecrow Press, Inc., 1973. An extensive listing of the best sellers by author, title, illustrator, year of first publication and number of copies sold, with a brief description of each book.

Bibliography of Books for Children. Association for Childhood Education International, 1977. Annotated list of books for children from preschool through elementary grades, grouped by subject or form in useful categories.

The Black Experience in Children's Books. Barbara Rollock, rev. ed. New York Public Library, 1974. An annotated bibliography, classified by age and subject matter about black life in America, in the Islands, in Africa, and in England.

The Bookfinder: A Guide to Children's Literature About the Needs and Problems of Youth Aged 2-15. Sharon Dreyer, ed. American Guidance Service, 1977. A split-page format allows indexes and text to be browsed independently in this critical assessment of fiction touching on upheavals in children's lives.

Books for Children, 1971-72. Chicago: American Library Association, 1973. A compilation of reviews of recommended books, expressly for teachers and librarians.

Books for You. Jean A. Wilson. Urbana, Illinois: National Council of Teachers of English, 1971. A listing of 2,000 fiction and non-fiction selections in differing subject areas for the use of both student and teacher.

Books to Help Children Cope with Separation and Loss. Joanne Bernstein. New York: Bowker, 1977. An introductory discussion of bibliotherapy, with annotated book lists grouped by subject headings.

Bulletin of the Center for Children's Books. The University of Chicago, Graduate School, University of Chicago Press. An ongoing review of new titles for children and young people. The reviews are detailed, and grade levels and prices are given.

Children and Poetry: A Selective Annotated Bibliography, comp. by Virginia Haviland and William Jay Smith, 2nd ed., rev. Library of Congress, 1979. Enhanced with illustrations from recommended books, this is a selective guide to poetry, old and new, for use with children.

Children's Books: Awards and Prizes. Children's Book Council, 1980. A compilation of honors awarded in the children's book field by organizations, schools, publishers, and newspapers.

Children's Books Too Good To Miss, comp. by May Hill Arbuthnot, Margaret Mary Clark, Harriet Geneva Long, and Ruth M. Hadlow, 7th ed. University Press Books, 1980. A select list of books suggested as the irreducible minimum, to which every child should be exposed.

The Children's Bookshelf: A Guide to Books For and About Children, prepared by the Child Story Association of America, rev. ed. Bantam, 1974. Short articles on books and reading.

Children's Catalog. Rachel Shor and Estelle A. Fidel. 13th ed. New York: H.W. Wilson Co., 1967-76 + annual supplements. A suggested listing of books with a classified and an alphabetical section including author, title, publisher, date, price, approximate grade level and annotation.

Elementary Library Collection. 11th ed. Newark, NJ: Bro-Dart Foundation, 1977. A list of annotated print and nonprint materials, non-fiction, fiction, easy books, periodicals and professional books for the teacher arranged by author, title and subject.

Fantasy for Children: An Annotated Checklist, by Ruth Nadelman Lynn. New York: Bowker, 1979. A bibliographic guide to works of fantasy, divided by type and theme, incorporating reference to review sources.

Good and Inexpensive Books for Children. Esther D. Hemsig. Washington, D.C.: Association for Childhood Education International, 1972. A selection of hardback and paperback books grouped in subject areas and proceeding from a primary level to an upper elementary level.

Good Reading for Poor Readers. George D. Spache. 10th ed. Champaign Illinois: Garrard Publishing Company, 1978. This source includes newspapers, programmed materials and magazines as well as books for the reluctant reader.

A Guide to Non-Sexist Children's Books, comp. by Judith Adell and Hilary Klein. Academy Press, 1976. An annotated bibliography is divided by grade groups.

The Horn Book Magazine. Horn Book. Published six times a year. A magazine about children's books, authors, illustrators, with a section for reviews.

I Can Read It Myself: Some Books for Independent Reading in The Primary Grades, prepared by Frieda M. Heller. Ohio State University, 1965. Annotated lists divided into three levels of competence.

An Index to Young Readers' Collective Biographies, comp. by Judith Silverman, 3rd ed. New York: Bowker, 1979. This volume indexes the contents of some 950 collective biographies by fields of activity and nationality.

IRA. Newark, DE: IRA. Eight small, accessible publications directed to parents about reading in the home.

A Multimedia Approach to Children's Literature: A Selective List of Films, Filmstrips, and Recordings Based on Children's Books, comp. by Ellen Greene and Madalynne Schoenfield. ALA, 1977. Selective information about book-related, non-print materials, arranged by book title.

Notes from a Different Drummer: A Guide to Juvenile Fiction Portraying the Handicapped, comp. by Barbara Baskin and Karen Harris. New York: Bowker, 1977. This annotated guide to books that have handicapped characters is prefaced by an analysis of the treatment of the disabled in literature.

Publisher's Weekly — Children's Book Number. New York: R. R. Bowker and Company, 1980. Published twice annually.

School Library Journal. New York: Bowker. Published September through May. Reviews of nearly all new children's books, including articles about librarianship and literature.

A Teacher's Guide to Children's Books. Columbus, OH: Charles E. Merrill Company, 1960. A guide to all teachers about how to select books for children and what books are available.

The World of Books for Children: A Parent's Guide. Abby Campbell Hunt. Sovereign, 1979. A guide who recommended children's books; titles are arranged by subject within age level designations.

D. AWARD BOOKS

Caldecott Award Books

Year	Title	Illustrator*
1938	*Animals of the Bible*	Dorothy Lathrop
1939	*Mei Li*	Thomas Handforth
1940	*Abraham Lincoln*	Ingrid d'Aulaire
1941	*They Were Strong and Good*	Robert Lawson

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*When the author and illustrator are the same, the name will appear under the illustrator.

Year	Title	Author	Illustrator*
1942	*Make Way for Ducklings*		Robert McCloskey
1943	*The Little House*		V. L. Burton
1944	*Many Moons*	James Thurber	L. Slobodkin
1945	*Prayer for a Child*	Rachel Field	E. O. Jones
1946	*The Rooster Crows*		Maud Petersham
1947	*The Little Island*	Golden McDonald	Leonard Weisgard
1948	*White Snow Bright Snow*	Alvin Tresselt	Roger Duvoisin
1949	*The Big Snow*		Berta & Elmer Hader
1966	*Always Room for One More*	Sosche Nic Leodkas	Nonny Hogrogian
1967	*Sams, Bangs and Moonshine*		Evaline Ness
1969	*The Fool of the World and the Flying Ship*		Arthur Ransome
1970	*Sylvester and the Magic Pebble*		William Steig
1971	*A Story, A Story*		Gail E. Haley
1972	*One Fine Day*		Nonny Hogrogian
1973	*The Funny Little Woman*		Blair Lent
1974	*Duffy and the Devil*	Harve Zemach	Margot Zemach
1975	*Arrow to the Sun*		Gerlad McDermott
1976	*Why Mosquitoes Buzz in People's Ears*	Verna Aardema	Leo & Diane Dillon
1977	*Ashanti to Zulu: African Traditions*		Leo & Diane Dillon
1978	*Noah's Ark*	Jacobus Revius	Peter Spier
1979	*The Girl Who Loved Wild Horses*		Paul Goble
1980	*Ox-Cart Man*	Donald Hall	Barbara Cooney
1981	*Fables*		Arnold Lobel

Newbery Medal Books

Year	Title	Author
1922	*The Story of Mankind*	H. W. Van Loon
1923	*The Voyages of Doctor Doolittle*	Hugh Lofting
1924	*The Dark Frigate*	C. B. Hawes

Year	Title	Author
1925	*Tales from Silver Lands*	C. J. Finger
1926	*Shen of the Sea*	Arthur B. Chrisman
1927	*Smoky, the Cowhorse*	Will James
1928	*Gay-Neck*	Dhan Gopal Mukerji
1929	*The Trumpeter of Krakow*	Eric P. Kelly
1930	*Hitty, Her First Hundred Years*	Rachel Field
1931	*The Cat Who Went To Heaven*	Elizabeth Coatsworth
1932	*Waterless Mountain*	Laura Adams Armes
1933	*Young Fu of the Upper Yangtze*	Elizabeth Foreman Lewis
1934	*Invincible Louisa*	Cornelia Meigs
1935	*Dobry*	Monica Shannon
1936	*Caddie Woodlawn*	Carol Rysie Brink
1937	*Roller Skates*	Ruth Sawyer
1938	*The White Stag*	Kate Seredy
1939	*Thimble Summer*	Elizabeth Enright
1940	*Daniel Boone*	James Daugherty
1941	*Call It Courage*	Armstrong Sperry
1942	*The Matchlock Gun*	Walter Edmonds
1943	*Adam of the Road*	Elizabeth Gray
1944	*Johnny Tremain*	Esther Forbes
1945	*Rabbit Hill*	Robert Lawson
1946	*Strawberry Girl*	Lois Lenski
1947	*Miss Hickory*	Carolyn Bailey
1948	*The Twenty-One Balloons*	William Pene du Bois
1949	*King of the Wind*	Marguerite Henry
1950	*The Door in the Wall*	Marguerite de Angeli
1951	*Amos Fortune, Free Man*	Elizabeth Yates
1952	*Ginger Pye*	Eleanor Estes
1953	*Secret of the Andes*	Ann Nolan Clark
1954	*And Now Miguel*	John Krumgold
1955	*Wheel of the School*	Meindert DeJong
1956	*Carry On, Mr. Bowditch*	Jean Lee Latham
1957	*Miracles on Maple Hill*	Virginia Sorensen
1958	*Rifles for Watie*	Harold Keith
1959	*Witch of Blackbird Pond*	Elizabeth G. Speare
1960	*Onion John*	John Krumgold
1961	*Island of the Blue Dolphins*	Scott O'Dell
1962	*The Bronze Bow*	Elizabeth G. Speare
1963	*A Wrinkle in Time*	Madeline L'Engle

Year	Title	Author
1964	*It's Like This, Cat*	Emily Neville
1965	*Shadow of a Bull*	Maria Wojciechowska
1966	*I, Juan de Pareja*	Elizabeth Borton de Trevino
1967	*Up a Road Slowly*	Irene Hunt
1968	*From the Mixed-up Files of Mrs. Basil E. Frankweiler*	E. L. Koningsburg
1969	*The High King*	Lloyd Alexander
1970	*Sounder*	William H. Armstrong
1971	*Summer of the Swans*	Betsy Byars
1972	*Mrs. Brisby and the Rats of NIMH*	Robert C. O'Brien
1973	*Julie of the Wolves*	Jean George
1974	*The Slave Daner*	Paula Fox
1975	*M. C. Higgins the Great*	Virginia Hamilton
1976	*The Grey King*	Susan Cooper/ Margaret McElderry
1977	*Roll of Thunder, Hear My Cry*	Mildred Taylor
1978	*Bridge to Terabithia*	Katherine Paterson
1979	*The Westing Game*	Ellen Raskin
1980	*A Gathering of Days, A New England Girl's Journal, 1830-32*	Joan Blos
1981	*Jacob Have I Loved*	Katherine Paterson

Young Hoosier Book Award

Year	Title	Author	Illustrator
1975	*Trumpet of the Swan*	E. B. White	Edward Frascino
1976	*Are You There, God? It's Me, Margaret*	Judy Blume	
1977	*How to Eat Fried Worms*	Thomas Rockwell	Emily McCully
1978	*Best Christmas Pageant Ever*	Barbara Robinson	Judith Gwyn Brown
1979	*Ghost on Saturday Night*	Sid Fleishman	Eric Von Schmidt
1980	*Don't Hurt Laurie*	Willo Davis Roberts	Ruth Sanderson
1981	*The Goof that Won the Pennant*	Jonah Kalb	Sandy Kossin

E. RECOMMENDED BOOKS FOR CHILDREN

Primary Books

Adler, David. *A Little At A Time.* New York: Random House, 1976.

Baer, Edith. *The Wonder of Hands.* New York: *Parent's Magazine* Press, 1976.

Berenstein, Stanley and Janice. *Bears in the Night.* New York: Random House, 1971.

Bishop, Claire H. *The Five Chinese Brothers.* Illustrated by Kurt Wiese. New York: Coward, McCann, and Geoghegan, Inc., 1938.

Brenner, Barbara. *Bodies.* Illustrated by George Ancona. New York: E. P. Dutton and Company, Inc., 1973.

Brown, Marcia. *Felice.* New York: Charles Scribner and Sons, 1958.

Brown, Margaret Wise. *Goodnight Moon.* Illustrated by Clement Hurd. New York: Harper and Row, 1947.

Burton, Virginia Lee. *Mike Mulligan and His Steam Shovel.* Boston, MA: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1938.

Carle, Eric. *The Grouchy Ladybug.* New York: Crowell, 1977.

Cleary, Beverly. *Henry and the Paper Route.* Illustrated by Louis Darling. New York: William Morrow and Co., Inc., 1957.

Clifton, Lucille. *Some of the Days of Everett Anderson.* Illustrated by Evaline Ness. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1970.

Fisher, Aileen. *Do Bears Have Mothers Too?* Illustrated by Eric Carle. New York: Crowell, 1973.

Freeman, Don. *Dandelion.* New York: Viking Press, 1964.

Fujikawa, Gyo. *Mother Goose.* New York: Grosset, 1968.

Gag, Wanda. *Millions of Cats.* New York: Coward, McCann and Geoghegan, Inc., 1938.

Garelick, May. *Where Does the Butterfly Go When It Rains?* Illustrated by Leonard Weisgard. New York: Young Scot, 1961.

Graham, Margaret. *Be Nice To Spiders.* New York: Harper and Row, 1967.

Green, Mary McBurney. *Is It Hard? Is It Easy?* Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley, 1960.

Greenfield, Eloise. *She Come Bring Me That Little Baby Girl.* New York: Lippincott, 1975.

Grifalconi, Ann. *City Rhythms.* Indianapolis, IN: Bobbs-Merrill Co., 1965.

Hoban, Russell. *Bread and Jam for Frances.* Illustrated by Lillian Hoban. New York: Harper and Row, 1964.

Hoban, Tana. *Circles, Triangles, and Squares.* New York: Macmillan Publishing Co., Inc., 1974.

Keats, Ezra Jack. *Goggles.* New York: Macmillan Co., 1969.

Keats, Ezra Jack. *Hi Cat!* New York: Macmillan Publishing Co., Inc., 1969.

Kraus, Robert. *Leo the Late Bloomer.* Illustrated by Jose Aruego. New York: Windmill, 1973.

Lionni, Leo. *Swimy.* New York: Pantheon Books, Inc., 1963.

Mason, Miriam E. *The Middle Sister.* Illustrated by Grace Paull. New York: Macmillan Co., 1947.

McCloskey, Robert. *Blueberries for Sal.* New York: Viking Press, Inc., 1948.

Milne, A.A. *The World of Pool.* New York: Dutton, 1957.

Peet, Bill. *The Wump World.* Boston, MA: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1970.

Rey, Hans. *Curious George.* New York: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1947.

Rich, Elaine Sommers. *Hannah Elizabeth.* Illustrated by Paul Edward Kennedy. New York: Harper and Row, Inc., 1964.

Scarry, Richard. *Richard Scarry's Best Counting Book Ever.* New York: Random House, 1975.

Sendak, Maurice. *Where The Wild Things Are.* New York: Harper and Row, 1963.

Turkle, Brinton. *Thy Friend, Obadiah.* New York: Viking Press, Inc., 1969.

Viorst, Judith. *Alexander and the Terrible, Horrible, No Good Very Bad Day.* New York: Anthenuem, 1977.

Wolde, Gunilla. *This is Betsy.* New York: Random House, 1975.

Yashima, Taro. *Crow Boy.* New York: Viking Press, Inc., 1955.

Zion, Gene. *Harry, The Dirty Dog.* Illustrated by Margaret Bloy Graham. New York: Harper and Row, Inc., 1956.

Zolotow, Charlotte. *William's Doll.* Illustrated by William Pene du Bois. New York: Harper and Row, Inc., 1972.

Intermediate (grades 3-4)

Arora, Shirley L. *What Then Raman?* Chicago: Follett Publishing Co., 1960.

Bemelmans, Ludwig. *Madeline.* New York: Viking Press, 1939.

Blume, Judy. *Tales of a Fourth Grade Nothing.* Illustrated by Roy Doty. New York: Dutton, 1972.

Buck, Pearl. *The Big Wave.* New York: John Day Co., 1948.

Calhoun, Mary. *Honestly, Katie John.* Illustrated by Paul Frame. New York: Harper and Row, Inc., 1963.

Carruth, Ella Kaiser. *She Wanted to Read: The Story of Mary Macleod Bethune.* Illustrated by Herbert McClure. Nashville, TN: Abingdon Press, 1966.

Cleary, Beverly. *Henry Huggins.* Illustrated by Louis Darling. New York: Morrow, 1950.

Cleary, Beverly. *Ramona the Pest.* Illustrated by Louis Darling. New York: William Morrow and Company, Inc., 1968.

Clymer, Eleanor. *My Brother Stevie.* Illustrated by Estal Nesbitt. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1967.

Dr. Seuss. *The Lorax.* New York: Random House, 1971.

Estes, Eleanor. *The Moffats.* Illustrated by Louis Slobodkin. New York: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich, Inc., 1968.

Fitzhugh, Louise. *Harriet the Spy.* New York: Harper and Row, Inc., 1964.

Fox, Paula. *The Stone-Faced Boy.* Illustrated by Donald A. MacKay. Scarsdale, NY: Bradbury Press, Inc., 1968.

Hill, Elizabeth Starr. *Evan's Corner.* New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1967.

Konigsburg, E. L. *Jennifer, Hecate, Macbeth, William McKinley and Me, Elizabeth.* New York: Atheneum Publishing, 1967.

Lawson, Robert. *Rabbit Hill.* New York: Viking Press, 1944.

Lewis, C. S. *The Lion, The Witch, and the Wardrobe: A Story for Children.* Illustrated by Pauline Baynes. New York: Macmillan, 1950.

Lewis, Richard. *In A Spring Garden.* New York: The Dial Press, 1965.

Lindgren, Astrid. *Pippi Longstocking.* Illustrated by Louis S. Glanzman. New York: Viking Press, 1950.

Macaulay, David. *Castle.* Boston, MA: Houghton Mifflin Co., Inc., 1978.

McCloskey, Robert. *Homer Price.* New York: Viking Press, 1943.

O'Dell, Scott. *Island of the Blue Dolphins.* Boston, MA: Houghton Mifflin Co., Inc., 1960.

Paterson, Katherine. *Bridge to Terabithia.* New York: Crowell, 1978.

Robertson, Keith. *Henry Reed, Inc.* Illustrated by Robert McCloskey. New York: Viking Press, 1958.

Scott, Ann Herbert. *Sam.* New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1967.

Shatwell, Louise R. *Roosevelt Grady.* Illustrated by Peter Burchard. New York: World Publishing Co., 1963.

Snyder, Zilpha Keatley. *The Velvet Room.* Illustrated by Alton Raible. New York: Atheneum Publishers, 1965.

Steelle, William O. *The Perilous Road.* Illustrated by Paul Galdone. New York: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich, Inc., 1958.

Vall Allsburg, Chris. *The Garden of Abdul Gasazi.* New York: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1979.

White, E. B. *Charlotte's Web.* Illustrated by Garth Williams. New York: Harper and Row, 1952.

Wier, Ester. *The Wind Classes.* Illustrated by Kurt Werth. New York: David McKay Co., 1967.

Wilder, Laura Ingalls. *The Little House.* Illustrated by Garth Williams. New York: Harper and Row, 1953.

Upper Elementary (grades 5-6)

Ball, Zachary. *Bristle Face.* New York: Holiday House, Inc., 1962.

Barnwell, Robinson. *Head Into The Wind.* Illustrated by Avery Johnson. New York: David McKay Co., Inc., 1966.

Bradbury, Bianca. *The Undergrounders.* Illustrated by Jon Nielson. New York: Ives Washburn, Inc., 1966.

Burnett, Frances. *The Secret Garden.* Illustrated by Tashe Tudor. New York: Lippincott, 1962.

Burnford, Shelia. *The Incredible Journey.* Illustrated by Carl Burger. Boston, MA: Little Brown, and Co., 1961.

Cavanna, Betty. *Jenny Kimura.* New York: William Morrow and Co., Inc., 1964.

Dahl, Ronald. *Charlie and the Chocolate Factory.* Illustrated by Joseph Schindelman. New York: Knopf, 1964.

DeAngeli, Marguerite. *The Door in the Wall.* New York: Doubleday, 1964.

DeJong, Meindert. *The House of Sixty Fathers.* Illustrated by Maurice Sendak. New York: Harper and Row, Inc., 1968.

Doss, Helen. *The Family Nobody Wanted.* Boston, MA: Little Brown and Co., 1954.

Emery, Anne. *Mountain Laurel.* New York: Scholastic Book Services, 1948.

Fitzgerald, John D. *The Great Brain.* Illustrated by Mercer Mayer. New York: Dial Co., 1967.

Fox, Paula. *Blowfish Life In the Sea.* New York: Bradbury, 1970.

Greenfield, Eloise. *African Dream.* New York: John Day, 1977.

Hamilton, Virginia. *M. C. Higgins the Great.* New York: Macmillan, 1974.

Hinton, S. E. *Tex.* New York: Delacorte, 1979.

Hinton, S. E. *The Outsiders.* New York: Viking Press, 1957.

Hunt, Irene. *Across Five Aprils.* Illustrated by Albert John Pucci. Chicago: Follett Publishing Co., 1964.

Kipling, Rudyard. *Just So Stories.* Illustrated by Etienne Delessert. New York: Doubleday, 1972.

Konigsburg, E. L. *From the Mixed-Up Files of Mrs. Basil E. Frankweiler.* New York, Atheneum, 1967.

Konigsburg, E. L. *Throwing Shadows.* New York: Atheneum, 1979.

L'Engle, Madeleine. *A Wrinkle in Time.* New York: Farrar, 1962.

Lester, Julius. *To Be A Slave.* Illustrated by Tom Feelings. New York: Dell Publishing Co., Inc., 1968.

Rawlings, Marjorie Kinnan. *The Yearling.* New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1938.

Rockwell, Thomas. *How to Eat Fried Worms.* Illustrated by Emily McCully. New York: Watts, 1973.

Rodgers, Mary. *Freaky Friday.* New York: Harper and Row, 1972.

Serraillier, Ian. *Escape From Warsaw.* Illustrated by Erwin Hoffman. New York: Scholastic Book Services, 1968.

Wier, Ester. *The Loner.* New York: David McKay Co., 1963.

Williams, Margery. *The Velveteen Rabbit: Or How Toys Became Real.* Illustrated by William Nicholson. New York: Doubleday.

Zindel, Paul. *The Pigman.* New York: Harper and Row Publishers, 1966.

F. CHILDREN'S BOOK CLUBS AND CHILDREN'S PERIODICALS

Magazines and Newspapers for Children

American Girl, The. Published monthly by the Girl Scouts of the U.S.A., 830 Third Avenue, New York, NY 10022.

Boys' Life. Published monthly by the Boy Scouts of America, New Brunswick, NJ 08903.

Child Life. Published monthly by Curtis Publishing Co., PO Box 567 B, Indianapolis, IN 46205.

Children's Digest. Published monthly except July and August by Parents' Magazine Press, Inc., 52 Vanderbilt Avenue, New York, NY 10017.

Children's Express. Published monthly by Chesire Communications Co., 257 Park Avenue South, New York, NY 10022.

Children's Playcraft. Published monthly except July and August by Parents' Magazine Enterprises, Inc., 52 Vanderbilt Avenue, New York, NY 10017.

Cricket. Published monthly by the Johnson Publishing Company, Michigan Avenue, Chicago, IL 60605.

Daisy. Published monthly except June, July and August by the Girl Scouts of the U.S.A., 830 Third Avenue, New York NY 10022.

Dynamite. Published monthly by Scholastic Magazines, PO Box 2005, Englewood, NJ 07631.

Ebony Junior. Published monthly except July and August by the Johnson Publishing Co., Michigan Avenue, Chicago, IL 60605.

Electric Company Magazine. Published monthly by the Children's Television Workshop. 1 Lincoln Plaza, New York, NY 10023.

Highlights for Children. Published eleven times a year by Highlights, 2300 West 5th Street, PO Box 269, Columbus, OH 43216.

Humpty Dumpty's Magazine. Published monthly except July and August by Parents' Magazine Enterprises, Inc., 52 Vanderbilt Avenue, New York, NY 10017.

Jack and Jill. Published monthly except July and August by Curtis Publishing Co., 1100 Waterway Blvd., PO Box 567 B, Indianapolis, IN 46206.

Junior Scholastic. Published weekly except during the summer by Scholastic Magazines, 902 Sylvan Avenue, Englewood Cliffs, NJ 07632.

Kaleidoscope. Published six times a year by Prince George's County Memorial Library System, 6532 Adelphi Road, Hyattsville, MD 20782.

My Weekly Reader. Published weekly except during the summer by Xerox Education Publications, 1250 Fairwood Avenue, Columbus, OH 43216.

Pack-O-Fun. Published monthly by Clapper Publishing Company, 14 Main Street, Park Ridge, IL 60068.

Pizzazz. Published monthly by Marvel Comics Group, Cadence Industries, 666 Fifth Avenue, New York, NY 10014.

Ranger Rick. Published monthly by the National Wildlife Federation, 1412 16th Street NW, Washington, DC 20036.

Scholastic Magazine. Published monthly by Scholastic, 50 West 44th Street, New York, NY 10036.

Scienceland. Published monthly at 501 Fifth Avenue, Suite 2102, New York, NY 10017.

Sesame Street. Published monthly by Sesame Street, PO Box C-10, Birmingham, AL 35283.

Spicy Meatball. Published by Teachers and Writers Collaborative, 186 West Fourth Street, New York, NY 10014.

Stone Soup. Published five times a year by Children's Art Foundation, Box 83, Santa Cruz, CA 95063.

Wee Wisdom. Published monthly except July and August, Unity Village, MO 64065.

World. Published monthly by National Geographic Society, 17th and M Streets NW, Washington, DC 20036.

WOW. Published nine times a year by Scholastic Magazines, Inc., 50 West 44th Street, New York, NY 10036.

Young World Magazine. Published monthly except July and August by the Saturday Evening Post Co., 1100 Waterway Blvd., PO Box 567B, Indianapolis, IN 46206.

Zoo Nooz. Published monthly by the Zoological Society of San Diego, Box 551, San Diego, CA 92112.

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Alexander, J. Estill and Filler, Ronald Claude. *Attitudes and Reading.* Newark, Delaware: International Reading Association, 1976.

Bettleheim, Bruno. *The Use of Enchantment.* NY: Vintage Books, 1976.

Cianciolo, Patricia J. *Illustration in Children's Books,* 2nd ed. Dubuque, Iowa: Wm. C. Brown Publishers, 1976.

Cullinan, Bernice E. ed. *Literature and Young Children.* Urbana, IL: National Council of Teachers of English, 1977.

Dillmer, Martha H. "Affective Objectives in Reading." *Journal of Reading,* Vol. 17, No. 8, May, 1974.

Fader, Daniel, and McNeil, Elton B. *Hooked on Books: Program and Proof.* New York: Berkley Medallion Books, 1977.

Feeley, Joan T. "Television and Children's Reading." *Elementary English,* 50, January, 1973.

Fiddler, Jerry B. *The Standardization of a Questionnaire to Ascertain the Attitude Toward Reading of Sixth-Grade Pupils.* Unpublished doctoral dissertation, the State University of New York at Buffalo, 1974.

Funk, Hal D., et al. *Language Arts in the Elementary School: Reading.* New York: J. B. Lippincott, 1972.

Gillespie, John T., and Gilbert, Christine B. *Best Books for Children.* New York: R. R. Bowker Company, 1978.

Hansen, Harlan S., and Hansen, Ruth Mark. "Learning About Language Through Literature." *Exploring Language With Children.* Edited by John Warren Stewig. Columbus, OH: Charles E. Merrill Publishing Company, 1974.

Henry, George H. *Teaching Reading as a Concept Development: Emphasis on Affective Thinking.* Newark, DE: International Reading Association, 1974.

Huck, Charlotte, and Kuhn, Doris Young. *Children's Literature in the Elementary School.* 3rd ed. New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston, 1979.

Krathwohl, David K., et al. *Taxonomy of Educational Objectives Handbook II: The Affective Domain.* New York: David McKay Company, Inc., 1964.

Mager, Robert F. *Developing Attitude Toward Learning.* Belmont California: Fearon, 1968.

Monson, Dianne L. "Literature for Teachers." *New Horizons in the Language Arts.* Edited by Alvina T. Burrows and Russell G. Stauffer. Evanston, IL: Harper and Row, Inc. 1972.

Odland, Norine. *Teaching Literature in Elementary School.* Urbana, IL: National Council of Teachers of English, 1969.

Riggs, Corrine W. *Bibliotherapy.* Newark, DE: International Reading Association, 1971.

Rupley, William H. "Reading Interests: Motivating Students to Read for Personal Enjoyment." Reading Teacher. 30 October, 1976.

Sebesta, Sam L., and Iverson, William. *Literature for Thursday's Child.* Palo Alto, CA: Science Research Associates, 1975.

Smith, James A., and Park, Dorothy M. *Word Music and Word Magic: Children's Literature Methods.* Boston: Allyn and Bacon, 1977.

Sutherland, Zena, et al. *Children and Books.* 6th ed. Chicago: Scott Foresman and Company, 1981.

Tanyzer, Harold, and Karl, Jean. *Reading, Children's Books and Our Pluralistic Society.* Newark, DE: International Reading Association, 1972.

Winkeljohann, Sister Rosemary. "ERIC RCS Report: Children's Affective Development Through Books." *Elementary English,* Vol. 51, No. 3, March, 1974.

Section VI
Organization for Instruction

Chapter 19
Administrative Organization

Chapter 20
Classroom Organization

19 Administrative Organization

Effective classroom organization is a prerequisite for effective instruction. It involves a great deal of thought and planning. Effective organization is necessary to provide for individual differences within the classroom. The potential value of any plan for organization depends upon three components: diagnostic prescriptive teaching, suitable materials for instruction and competent, creative teachers who are genuinely concerned about individual students.

There is no one best organizational plan that guarantees achievement, but each one has its possibilities for meeting individual differences. "Individualization" commonly is thought of as one-to-one instruction; however, in any program the number of students per group does not determine whether or not instruction has been individualized. In an individualized program some students may work in groups while others work alone and independently of the teacher. The concept of individualized instruction involves utilizing group activities, individual activities and whole-class activities to meet the students' specific needs.

The intent of this section is to provide principals and classroom teachers with some basic techniques for organizing the school and classroom for instruction and for managing a program designed to accommodate individual differences. Chapter 19 focuses on the role of the administrator as the instructional leader in curriculum development and improvement of instruction. The factors discussed are relevant and vital to any school organizing an effective instructional program. Chapter 20 examines three basic organizational patterns; intraclass grouping, interclass grouping, and individual or independent learning programs. This chapter also discusses procedures and techniques used to manage a program effectively.

A. FACTORS INFLUENCING ORGANIZATION. An administrative staff, who understands the basic elements of organization and alternative methods of teaching, is prepared to assist teachers in organizing for effective instruction. The philosophies of each school system determine how students are grouped into their respective classrooms. When organizing for instruction, administrators and teaching staff should consider several factors: a) needs of the student population; b) facilities available within the school; c) competency and philosophy of staff; d) use and availability of materials; e) time allocations or schedules.

1. *Needs of the Student Population.*

Knowledge of the students' individual differences in reading — ability, skill mastery, maturity, rate of learning, interests, attitudes, and preferred style of learning — are useful in planning for instructional organization. It is important that the principal understand the learning process of children. If a teacher feels more information should be gathered on a student for adequate placement, the principal should be able to advise the teacher on the means and possible direction for collecting such data. It is also the responsibility of the principal to see that the data is interpreted and analyzed satisfactorily. This diagnostic process includes the use of standardized tests, informal reading inventories, daily classroom observation, and criterion-reference tests. (Refer to Section VII for more information on diagnosis.) Personal journals, inventories, and records of progress may also be used to determine the interests, self-concept and rate of learning for each student. (See Section V on the Affective Dimension).

Some schools have students with special needs: physical, emotional and/or intellectual. Students may come to school with inadequate knowledge of English vocabulary or may be bilingual, where English is not the dominant language of the home. Some student's behavior may disrupt the class and prevent learning by the rest of the students. Students who are educable or trainable mentally handicapped have a slower rate of learning than their peers. Finally, there are those students who have the capability to learn but for some reason have not and are not learning. The principal must make provisions for accommodating these students by employing additional staff and providing special facilities and materials for instruction.

2. *Facilities Available.*
The facilities available within the school influence the organizational plans. The actual structure of the building can pose challenges to good organization. The size of the rooms affects the class size. Special services (Art, Music, Physical Education) and/or special personnel (Chapter I, Remedial Specialist, Librarian, teachers of special services) require adequate space and special facilities for effective operation.

Principals should see that classrooms are well-organized and well-equipped to enhance learning. Sufficient storage space is needed for materials and teaching aides, either in each classroom or in a central resource room.

Effective principals are creative and efficient in the use of the school facilities when they organize for instruction. Careful attention is given to the amount of space available, students' needs, acoustics, proper location of services, and the best use of furniture and equipment.

3. *Competency and Philosophy of Teaching Staff.*
The teacher contributes more to the success or failure of the student than does the method used to teach the students. The principal, therefore, should consider the competency of the instructional staff when assigning students to respective classrooms. The principal can use the talent and knowledge of the teachers in different ways. Some principals may decide to rotate classes for instruction so teachers may instruct in their areas of specialty. Experienced teachers can serve as resource persons within the school by assisting others through direct inservice, classroom observation, demonstration teaching and/or teacher-teacher conferencing.

Teachers also need to be directly involved in the development of the organizational plan. In order for the organizational policies to be effective, the teacher's style, personality and philosophy must be consistent with the organization plan. For example, some teachers may prefer to work in a self-contained classroom, whereas others may prefer a team-teaching approach.

4. *Use and Availability of Materials.*
Resources have an important impact on the organizational plan. Many teachers use the number, accessibility and variety of materials available to group their students for instruction. Without suitable materials to meet the individual differences, good instruction often is inhibited.

The principal is responsible for establishing a policy concerning the use and accessibility of materials at different levels. Some schools allow teachers to use basic and/or supplementary materials below and above the assigned grade level of their students. This enables a teacher, aware of the instructional needs of the class, to provide suitable materials at several levels. The use of materials needs to be consistent throughout the school.

Maximum use of resources require teachers to know what resources are available in the classroom, the school and corporation. It is helpful to conduct a school-wide or corporation-wide inventory. A simple form, such as the one below, may be devised to catalog the resources in a systematic way.

Name of Material	Skills Taught	Readability Level	Location
Hurst Challenge Program	Reading skills in content areas	3.5	5th, 6th grade classrooms

5. *Time Allocations or Schedules.*
In many school systems, the amount of time allotted to curricular instruction depends upon the approval by the board of education or governing agencies. An elementary school principal, however, knows that reading permeates the curriculum of the school. Usually the primary grades allow from eighty to ninety minutes per day and the intermediate levels may allot from fifty to eighty minutes per day for reading instruction.

How the instructional time is used on a daily basis concerns administrators and teachers. Due to the differences in students and in learning tasks, careful scheduling and planning procedures for movement are essential.

Another aspect of scheduling the principal needs to address is the 'special' students: remedial, handicapped or gifted. Often these students receive additional instruction from a resource teacher. When and how the students meet with the resource teacher takes careful planning and consideration.

B. ORGANIZATIONAL PLANS. The organizational plan of the school should be based on an analysis of the factors influencing organization. It is helpful if principals and teachers work together in determining how the classes will be organized. Several major types of organizational plans are discussed below.

1. *Self-Contained.*
This is the most traditional organizational plan where students are assigned to one teacher for instruction. In this plan, the teacher has greater flexibility of time and materials to help students apply what they learned to other content areas. This type of classroom organization better enables a teacher to know each student's background, abilities and interests through daily observation of student performance.

2. *Team-teaching.*
This method of grouping students and teachers is designed to facilitate individualized instruction by allowing two or more teachers to share the responsibility of planning, coordinating and instructing a group of students. Compatibility among the team members is essential. This type of structure utilizes the strengths and special interests of the teachers and avoids duplication of efforts.

3. *Departmentalization.*
In this type of organizational arrangement, students move from teacher to teacher for instruction. They may have as many as five to seven teachers per day. Teachers qualified in a particular field are allowed to concentrate on their areas of expertise. With this type of plan, integration between subjects and adapting to the needs of the individuals requires concentrated effort.

4. *Ungraded or Nongraded Organization.*
This organizational plan has been implemented mostly at the primary level. It is designed to provide for individual differences in the instructional settings with no reference to a specific grade level. Children assigned to kindergarten, first, second and third grade in a graded system are randomly assigned to primary classrooms in this system and remain in the primary unit until defined instructional goals have been reached. In some schools the teachers are assigned to a group of children and remain with them until they have completed the primary unit. Any of the various ways of assigning students to graded classrooms can be utilized in assigning children to groups in an upgraded plan.

5. *Interclass Grouping.*
In this type of grouping the reading teacher is usually someone other than the homeroom teacher. Each teacher on a grade level is assigned one particular reading level and any student performing on that level would go to that teacher for reading instruction. Teachers meet with students at the assigned levels at specific times. It is possible to use this method for reading and/or math only and to organize classrooms otherwise on a self-contained basis. There are two common options available in an interclass grouping structure.

a. *Intragrade grouping* of students among classrooms within the same grade level.
b. *Intergrade grouping* of students among classrooms between different grade levels.

A school may decide to use a combination of these grouping plans. Again it is important to consider the student needs along with teacher style and philosophy before making any assignments.

C. ASSIGNING STUDENTS. The placement of students to a classroom can be a difficult process. Once the organizational plan is decided, one procedure that is helpful to the principal is to have a Principal Worksheet. This procedure shows how students may be grouped according to reading levels.

In the spring, each teacher makes a list of the students in his/her class, ranking each by their instructional reading level. The principal tabulates the data on the worksheet as shown in figure 1. Assignment of students is then made based on the number of students at each reading level. Following this procedure, figure 2 depicts how the students are assigned to teachers of primary and intermediate classrooms. It should be noted that each teacher has two to three workable reading groups and approximately the same number of students in class. When this procedure is used, the principal can control the number of reading groups each teacher can manage effectively.

D. SUMMARY. Effective organization for instruction is the principal's responsibility as the instructional leader of the school. A principal who understands and considers the individual differences and backgrounds of the students and organizes the classrooms accordingly can help improve the quality of instruction. A principal should be alert to class size, teacher's experience and competence in classroom management as well as the teacher's style and philosophy of teaching.

Principal's Worksheet for Grouping Reading Achievement Levels

Figure 1

Number of Students per level		Grade 1	2	3	4	5	6
A	R						
B	PP	8	2				
C	P	18	6				
D	1^1	25	2	2			
E	1^2	31	15				1
F	2^1		33	3		1	1
G	2^2		21	10	4	2	
H	3^1			40	12	9	7
I	3^2			23	20	19	10
J	4			5	36	12	8
K	5				7	29	18
L	6					3	35
Total #		82	79	83	79	75	84

Principal's Intragrade Organizational Plan Grouping Worksheet

Figure 2

	Grade 2			Grade 5		
Reading Levels	Mr. G	Mrs. M	Ms. R	Mr. J	Mrs. O	Ms. W
A						
B			2			
C		6				
D	2					
E	8		7			
F	16		17		1	
G		21		2		
H					9	
I				19		
J						12
K					15	14
L				3		
Total	26	27	26	24	25	26

20 Classroom Organization

Essential to effective instruction is organization. A key element in classroom organization is grouping for instruction. As noted in Chapter 19 there is no one best method of grouping students in different ways for many different purposes and for differing lengths of time. Children should have an opportunity to work with others of varied abilities, interests and background. A major consideration for grouping is that it be flexible to the needs of students and to the teaching style of the teacher.

We can expect to find a wide range of differences in any classroom of students. These differences will be found in mental, physical, social and emotional development and should be expected as normal differences. Children will vary widely in their level of reading achievement, in the rate at which they learn to read, in the particular deficiencies they have in reading and in the ease and speed with which they can acquire any one of the specific reading skills. Good teaching makes for even greater variability in reading achievement. Instead of working toward having all pupils reach a predetermined level of reading ability at any specified time, the teacher should concentrate on helping each student achieve the success that is commensurate with his/her unique potential and should plan for a wider and wider span of reading abilities as the children advance upward through school.

Reading skills are developed gradually over a period of years in a basically systematic sequence, and a continuing program of skills development is necessary. The direct teaching of reading must take place at every level of achievement. At every level teachers must provide the opportunity for each child to become as proficient as possible. The time provided for the teaching of reading should be utilized in the most efficient way; therefore, some form of grouping is recommended.

A. ORGANIZING FOR INSTRUCTION. The teaching method utilized by the teachers must be considered in an organizational plan. Some teachers will rely on a basal reader program; some will use a language experience approach; some will use an individual approach, and others will elect components of some or all of these. (Refer to Chapter 9 for a discussion of reading methods.) The method of teaching the basic reading skills is a determining factor as to the type of classroom organization which will be most appropriate for a particular teacher with a given class for a specific purpose.

1. *Intraclass Grouping.*

Within a given class, the teacher may instruct the class as a whole or may group the students based on ability, specific needs, interest and/or age.

a. **Whole-class or Heterogeneous Grouping.**

In whole-class grouping, the entire class is taught as a single group with all children reading from the same text and completing the same assignment. There are situations when this pattern is beneficial. Many intermediate teachers prefer whole group instruction. They can use the same materials (films, tapes, other media aids) with the entire class to focus discussion or informational reading on a common interest or topic area. Choral reading and interpretative reading experiences involving the total class can develop companionship among students. When using the total class setting, teachers can capitalize on differences in background, ability, and experience to enrich classroom discussion.

b. **Ability/Achievement Grouping.**

This type of commonly used grouping is based on the perceived ability of students. The students are placed in a level of learning usually determined by formal and informal tests. Students are placed in a group for the purpose of instruction. These groups are said to be homogeneous. Ability grouping reduces the range of needs, but skills instruction within each group still needs to be differentiated. Teachers using the basal reader approach find this plan useful.

The number of groups formed will be determined by the needs of the children. Occasionally two groups will suffice, but more often three and possibly four groups will be needed. More than four groups is not likely to be practical for the direct teaching of basic skills because of limited time allowances. Grouping by achievement level is one means whereby materials can be assigned which are simple enough to give children a feeling of accomplishment but not so difficult as to be frustrating.

There are several weaknesses to ability grouping within the classroom. First of all, it tends to reflect a scholastic stigma for the students, which leads many students to view themselves as inadequate. Many times these groups seem to remain static, regardless of how hard the student works to improve and move to a different group. Such a situation can negatively affect the child's attitude toward learning. Another weakness of ability grouping is that sometimes the lower group has a majority of behavior and discipline problems related to frustration and poor self-concept. These behavior problems make it difficult for students to complete independent learning activities and thus, they frustrate the teacher. When ability grouping is used for instruction, the teacher should also provide practical experiences and activities that meet individual needs at any ability level.

c. **Specific Skills/Needs Groups.**
Children reading at various levels may be brought together when it is found that they have similar reading skills deficiencies. It is not unusual for children from any of the reading levels within the classroom to be combined for instruction directed toward special needs. For example, efficient use of a glossary to find meanings of unfamiliar words might be a basis for a special group. Other examples might include help in decoding words, increasing speed or recognizing synonyms.

Membership in a group of this kind could fluctuate rapidly as some members of the groups may need to belong for a very short period of time, while others may need many lessons to overcome their deficiencies. Needs groups are usually short-lived and occasionally may even involve the whole class. A general rule to follow when grouping for specific needs is to have students work on one new skill at a time; otherwise, there is confusion for the student.

d. **Interest Groups.**
Most groups formed on the basis of shared interest will be short-term and frequently restructured. Time should be regularly scheduled for groups to meet and work on their common interest. Children from all achievement levels can be brought together as a group for the purpose of exploring a topic of particular interest to them. These topics may be derived from a story one of the members has read. The activities may involve listening or sharing a story, making something, or taking part in a variety of other creative activities. Similar or related hobbies might draw together groups of youngsters whose reading achievement could range from first to sixth grade. This type of grouping is highly motivational and most useful in building positive self-concepts. Teachers should keep interest group plans flexible and form new groups often enough to stimulate reading on a variety of topics.

e. **Team Learning.**
This grouping pattern teams two students for a specific purpose. The teams match-up depends on the need of the students. For example, a child who has problems with oral reading might be teamed with a child who is proficient as an oral reader. Another approach that has proven successful is to team two slower readers or problem readers together. The two can assist each other without either feeling inadequate. Likewise, capable students can benefit by having teammates who can challenge them.

One disadvantage to team learning is that it requires close teacher supervision. The classroom teacher must prepare the lesson, the learning task and the form of evaluation.

2. *Interclass Grouping.*
This method of grouping combines the students in several classrooms at one grade level for the purpose of developing homogeneous groups in a particular subject area. For example, each teacher is assigned one reading level and any student reading on that level would go to that teacher for instruction in reading. It must be noted that a wide range of differences still exists within each group but many teachers find preparation for instruction easier than with other approaches.

With this technique, scheduling for instruction must be structured. The teachers must coordinate their daily plans and block a specific amount of time every day for reading. A drawback of this approach is the lack of opportunity to reinforce concepts and/or skill development in other content areas during the day.

3. *Individualized Reading.*
The principles of individualized reading are: (1) Seeking — The child seeks books to read; (2) Self-selection — The child selects books to read which are interesting to him and which he can read readily, and (3) Pacing — The child reads the book at his own rate.

There is no set format for this type of organization, but it generally includes the following activities:

- Pupil-teacher conferences are scheduled periodically.
- Children are given a block of time in which they are to choose a book and read in it.
- Special-needs groups are formed when it is determined they are necessary.
- Time is arranged for sharing with a group or the whole class.

B . SCHEDULING GROUPS. Scheduling time in the classroom is of utmost importance to effective management. The amount of time allotted for direct instruction of the curriculum will vary depending upon the teacher, the school, and the curriculum policy. More important to the teacher is to utilize the time wisely with groups and individuals within the classroom to meet the needs of the individual students. Listed below are several factors the teacher should consider when scheduling groups.

1. *Attention Span of your Students.*
Younger and less-able learners need shorter and more frequent segments of learning (possibly 10 minutes is the limit for some primary students).

2. *Group/Individual Time.*
The teacher should work with individual students and groups throughout the instructional period. There should not be "instructional" lags where all students are working independently.

3. *Teacher Contact.*
Some groups and/or individuals need direct teacher contact every day. Other groups are able to handle longer independent activities, seeing the teacher on an every-other-day basis.

4. *Simple and Routine.*
In order that the schedule be successful it must be clearly understood by the students. The teacher needs to take time to explain what is expected of each student in the routine operation of the plan. This is especially true for the use of learning centers and independent activities.

Figure 1

	Group A	Group B
8:30 — 8:50	Teacher directed	Independent work
8:50 — 9:10	Independent work	Teacher directed
9:10 — 9:30	Teacher directed	Independent work
9:30 — 9:35	Evaluation	

Example of a time plan for meeting with two groups.

Group A consists of the slower-paced learners, who need the teacher's attention for immediate reinforcement and more direct instruction. Group B is capable of working independently for a greater amount of time.

Figure 2

8:30 — 8:35	Preparation	
8:35 — 9:00	Teacher directed	Independent work
9:00 — 9:25	Independent work	Teacher directed
9:25 — 9:30	Evaluation	

Example of a time plan for meeting with two groups.

In this plan, the time is divided evenly between the two groups. The teacher, however, can be flexible in the use of this block time to meet the needs of the group. It is not always necessary to work with a group the same amount of time everyday.

Figure 3

	Group A	Group B	Group C
8:30 – 8:35	Teacher & Student Preparation		
8:35 – 8:55	Teacher directed	Independent work	Learning/ Interest Centers
8:55 – 9:00	Teacher gives attention to progress of individual/group work and answers questions		
9:00 – 9:20	Learning/ Interest Centers	Teacher directed	Independent work
9:20 – 9:25	Teacher gives attention to progress of individual/group work and answers questions		
9:25 – 9:45	Independent work	Learning/ Interest Centers	Teacher directed
9:45 – 9:55	Evaluation		

Example of a time plan for meeting with three groups.

In this plan the teacher has several minutes between groups to answer questions and make adjustments. It is recommended that the more capable students be the last group for direct instruction with the teacher, as the less able readers need immediate direction on tasks to be accomplished.

As you plan your schedule, avoid getting into a structured pattern of operation where every day the same time is spent with each group. The schedule should be flexible to adjust to the students' needs and the tasks to be accomplished. Most teachers find that time allowances prohibit working effectively with more than three or four groups. Keep the number of groups flexible and allow children to move from one group to another as needed. The most important consideration is to focus your attention on differentiating instruction according to the needs of the students within each group. Grouping and individual instruction should be combined in an effective reading program. The following charts are examples of grouping plans which can be utilized in the classroom.

Summary of Grouping Procedures.
Only by working efficiently with groups can most teachers begin to differentiate instruction. No single grouping plan can meet the needs of all teachers and children in all circumstances. Teachers must adapt and refine these procedures as needed. The effective teacher will provide a variety of experiences in the classroom using a composite of organizational approaches.

C. INDEPENDENT LEARNING PROGRAMS. Children vary widely in their mode of learning and the rate at which they learn. Independent programs provide opportunities for teachers to allow for these individual differences. As students develop a wider span of reading abilities, teachers can assist students in developing an independence in reading.

1. *Independent Reading Activities.*
The classroom teacher has the responsibility of providing independent activities which students can carry out while the teacher is working with small groups of children. The problem of keeping two-thirds or more of the class profitably engaged in worthwhile reading activities can be solved only with a knowledge of the children involved. Children will see more value and relevance in activities which they have had a part in planning. Each teacher must establish a working atmosphere in which he/she and the children can function efficiently.

The following are some suggestions for independent activities which may be adapted by a teacher to meet the needs of the children in his/her classroom.

- Silent reading to answer questions placed on the chalkboard.
- Silent reading to complete dittoed exercises.
- Completing exercises from a reading workbook after students have had appropriate readiness developed in the reading group. Workbooks should be checked after completion.
- Having each member of a group prepare a designated scene from a story so that when completed, the group's pictures tell the story.
- Reading library books or supplementary books.
- Writing an original story (or paragraph, depending upon the child's ability and desire).
- Selecting and preparing a short story or poem for audience reading.
- Reading to prepare for activities such as book reports, unit projects, research activities, dramatizations.
- Listening to taped stories.
- Playing commercially prepared or teacher-made games.

2. *Learning Centers.*
Learning centers are one way to individualize the curriculum within the framework of any classroom organizational plan. Children work independently at learning activities which have been prescribed for them by the teacher or which they have selected for themselves. This technique of teaching allows the child to work at his own pace, utilize his own learning style, meet his particular needs and, at the same time, have a positive relationship with his peer group.

Many centers are child-centered, that is self-directing, self-pacing and self-correcting. Teacher involvement is usually minimal, after original design and set-up of the center. Often a single center with a single objective will include materials at several ability levels to accommodate the range of individual differences in each classroom.

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The key to a successful learning center is a well-defined lesson plan which should contain these components:

- Definition of purpose.
- Self-direction for the child.
- Provision for different ability levels.
- Stated objectives for each specific skill.
- Clearly defined means of evaluation.

Suggested materials useful for learning centers.

a. **The Library Corner.**
Poetry, picture books, joke books, riddle books, game books, dictionaries of slang, how-to-do-it hobby books, story books, comic books, basal readers at various levels, plays for oral reading, periodicals such as Weekly Reader or Scholastic, class newspapers, magazines, books and stories written by children, experience charts, buddy reading books (sets of two), material for choral reading, cards for guided reading and for follow-up activities that provide a means of sharing books, card files of children's evaluation of books, bulletin boards for reporting on number of books read, etc., displays of new books.

b. **The Listening Center.**
Headphones, tape recorder or player, table or carrel, teacher-made and commercial tapes, books or stories, and question sheets or sequence puzzles, language masters and cards.

c. **Language Experience Center.**
Individual story books, a touch and feel box, a smell center (bottles or jars containing interesting smells), a weekly newspaper or newscast, pictures from magazines, travel folders, picture postcards, filmstrips, slides, artwork to stimulate writing, interesting objects to write about (toys, shells, etc.), cartoons without titles, story starters, a tape or record of sounds to write about, recordings of suggestions on how the materials might be used.

d. **Game Center.**
Commercial and teacher- and student-made games for developing word attack skills, spelling, vocabulary (word meanings), etc., should be selected to meet specific individual needs and assigned to small groups for practice in these needed skills.

Learning centers can be constructed in a number of ways using materials on hand:

- Set aside one or more desks for taping or listening activities.
- Use one or more desks or tables with a portable chalkboard or bulletin board between them.
- Use art easels as display racks.
- Construct a poster board stand.
- Use refrigerator packing boxes.
- Make carrels from corrugated paper.
- Make carrels from cardboard boxes.

After the center has been constructed and used by the students, the teacher should continually evaluate the effectiveness of the center and make any necessary changes. The following questions may assist the teacher in evaluating a learning center:

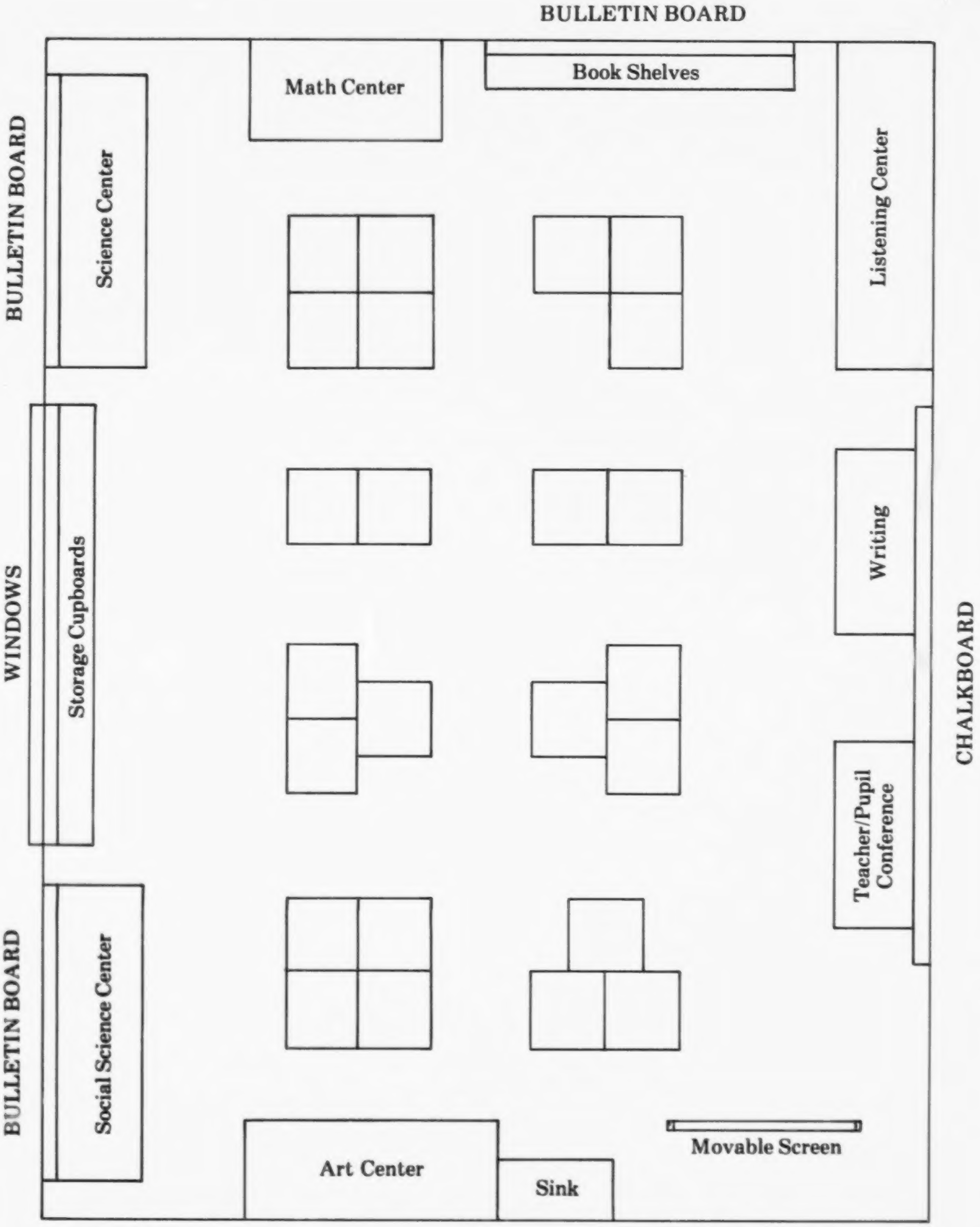
- Does the center offer a variety of activities?
- Are the activities at varied levels of difficulty?
- Are the students able to follow the directions and work independently?
- Are the students able to correct their own work?
- Is the scheduling procedure working effectively?
- Are accurate records of pupil progress being kept?
- What changes can be made to make the center more effective?

The introduction of the learning center to the classroom is crucial to its success. It should be well-planned by the teacher and gradually introduced to the students. The first learning centers should follow the same format or procedure, for example, the directions could all be located in the same place.

The teacher should expect to provide a lot of assistance in the beginning. If available, an aide or volunteer could assist students at the centers. Students, in turn, can teach others individually or in small groups to use the center.

Figure 4 is a diagram showing some classroom center possibilities.

Figure 4 Model classroom showing the use of learning centers


BULLETIN BOARD
Math Center
Book Shelves
BULLETIN BOARD
Science Center
Listening Center
WINDOWS
Storage Cupboards
Writing
CHALKBOARD
Teacher/Pupil Conference
BULLETIN BOARD
Social Science Center
Movable Screen
Art Center
Sink

3. *Individual Learning Packets.*
An individual learning packet includes activities for the child to complete. Materials in the packets should be organized in such a way that the child can progress at his own rate. Evaluation pre-tests can be included to determine whether the student needs to complete the remainder of the packet. If the pre-test indicates a need, the student should continue through the packet in order to develop the specific skill for which the packet was created. Satisfactory completion of the evaluation post-test indicates that the student is ready to continue on to the next skill. Student and teacher should evaluate the practice work as well as pre-test and post-test results. Together records of the student's growth and progress in particular skills should be kept.

4. *Learning Contracts.*
Learning contracts are particularly beneficial when used by the more mature students. Children at higher levels of achievement often are highly motivated to complete the work which has been contracted. The following (Figure 5) is an example of a reading contract combining basal text and individualization of instruction. It should be noted the overall objectives for this particular story are presented first in Nos. 1-6. All students are expected to complete each activity. Individual objectives are pursued after No. 7. At this point, the students take a mastery test to check the progress of the lesson objectives. Individual needs can be met by differentiating instruction in Nos. 8-11. Supplementary materials are used in order to provide for skill deficiencies.

Figure 5 — Learning Contract

"Points in Time" Level________

Name____

Date Started ____________________ Date Completed ____________________

Complete each before going on		Score
1. Self-Help activities (pp. 17-18)	check in class	
2. Skills Handbook (pp. 14-17)	check in class	
3. See the teacher (date)		
4. Read "The Search for Glory"		
5. Answer questions on p. 112	turn in	
6. Do dittoed worksheets (a, b, c)	place in folder	
7. See the teacher (date)		
8.		
9.		
10.		
11.		

Teacher's comments:

____

Student's comments:

____

Parents' comments:

____

D. CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT. If the classroom teacher is to provide an effective program — one that is designed to meet specific needs of individual students — there must be a system for managing the various program activities. This system consists of keeping adequate student and class records to show student progress.

Adequate record keeping is necessary to determine to what extent the program is working and to provide information concerning how the program should be adjusted if it is not working as well as expected or desired. In order to meet individual needs we not only have to know where a child is when he starts and where he is when he finishes, but what's happening continually throughout the school year. A system for gathering information and for putting that information into use in adjusting a child's program must be developed.

In developing an effective management system, it is necessary to look at the types of decisions the teacher is required to make. The decision that the management system is designed to facilitate must be related not only to the question of whether instruction is successful, but if not, why not? Efforts to collect useful information about instruction must include information relative to the success of our instructional efforts as well as information relative to the kinds of instructional efforts that are likely to be more effective.

Recordkeeping is the backbone of effective management systems. It is a continuous process of measuring and reporting student growth and progress. Records serve two major functions: (1) they provide the recorded information necessary for planning the program's instructional activities and (2) they provide the basic information upon which program evaluation is based. Records should be kept for the whole class as well as for each individual student.

Records should be passed on from year to year to provide the teacher with information and an initial profile of the student's learning development. Cumulative records provide pertinent data for the teacher but do not give sufficient information necessary to organize the class for instruction.

Characteristics of Good Recordkeeping:

- Usefulness — Records should provide the teacher the type and quality of information needed to organize and instruct the class effectively.
- Simplicity — Records should be simple and not take a great amount of teacher's time. Records should include basic information such as reading level, reading skills mastered and the materials used.
- Accuracy — In order for records to be useful, they must be kept up to date. It is impractical to expect a teacher to record all information at the exact moment it is collected or observed. The most satisfactory approach seems to be to schedule a regular period of time each week. Information gained from observation and interviews with students must be recorded within a relatively short period of time if it is to be remembered accurately.
- Consistency — Recording must be done systematically and consistently for the information to be understood and used by the teachers system-wide.
- Adaptability — Any recordkeeping system should be adaptable to the school's program objectives, scope and sequence of skills for instruction and criteria for mastery.

The teacher may find it helpful and time-saving to involve students themselves in the recordkeeping process. There are two advantages to having a student participate in the recording of his/her own progress. First, students appear to get a great deal of satisfaction out of being able to record their own progress and, thus, the recording can have motivational value. Second, if students are able to work with the kinds of record forms the teacher develops, it is possible for them to see where they are going as well as where they have been. There is considerable evidence that learning is improved when students are aware of the particular objectives or the particular skills the teacher wants them to learn. Records also serve as a guide for the evaluation of the program. When records are kept accurately, they indicate the kinds of accomplishments that are being made, and the kinds of efforts being exerted to meet the needs of students. This information is valuable in its use to evaluate the overall effectiveness of the program.

1. *Individual Records.*

a. **Individual Student Checklists.**
A skills checklist includes a specific set of skills and space for the teacher to indicate whether the student has mastered the particular skills that are listed. With a record such as the checklist, it is possible, by examining the skills on the checklist that the student has mastered and those that he has not, to determine the skills that must still be taught to that particular individual. The checklist also indicates those successes the teacher has had in terms of his previous teaching efforts within the student. If a teacher is planning for future instructional activities, he/she can focus upon those elements that the student has not accomplished. If he/she is making an evaluation of the student's past efforts, considering reporting to parents or planning parent conference, those items that are indicated on the checklist as having been successfully completed can be used to form a kind of profile of the student's abilities relative to reading. (Figures 6 and 7 for examples of student checklists.)

b. **Individual Student Notebook.**
Another kind of individual student record which can be suggested, and which teachers have found to be useful in keeping records of student progress, is a student notebook. This notebook, which includes a tab for each student's reading activities, provides a running account or diary of a student's reading efforts.

Included in the notebook are such things as the titles of books the student has read or is reading, a list of the specific activities the teacher has assigned him/her, any indication from the child of a particular area of interest and any number of things that would be useful to the teacher in looking at the child's reading behavior, both in terms of planning additional reading tasks and in terms of assessing the degree to which he has accomplished previously assigned tasks.

c. **Individual Student Work Folder.**
Closely related to the student notebook is a procedure which teachers have found to be most valuable and that is the keeping of a student work folder. This is nothing more than a file folder in which the teacher routinely and systematically collects and keeps samples of a student's work so that at some later date it is possible to examine the efforts the child has made and to make decisions about how successful those efforts have been. The work file is also a valuable source of information for preparing to report to parents. By having samples of the student's work to display, the teacher is able to give parents a better idea of a child's program as well as his level of success.

Figure 6

PUPIL INFORMATION CARD

Name____ Date/Year ____________

Reading Levels:

Independent __________ Instructional __________ Frustration __________

Oral Reading:

Strengths:

Needs:

Interests:

Discipline techniques:

Comments: ____

(Skills checklist on reverse side)

READING SKILLS

+mastered
−needs practice
has not been introduced

Phonetic Analysis
Initial consonants ______
Medial consonants ______
Final consonants ______
Consonant blends ______
Vowel rules (vcv, vc) ______
Short vowels ______
Long vowels ______
Digraphs ______
Vowel/consonant digraphs ______
R-controlled ______
Diphthongs ______

Vocabulary
Synonyms ______
Antonyms ______
Multiple meanings ______
Homonyms ______

Structural Analysis
Prefixes ______
Suffixes ______
Plurals ______
Compound words ______
Syllabication ______

Comprehension
Main idea ______
Note details ______
Recall sequence ______
Locate specific information ______
Make inferences ______
Draw conclusions ______
Predict outcomes ______
Make judgments ______

Study Skills
Follow directions ______
Alphabetize ______
Use dictionary ______
Use of Table of Contents ______ Maps ______
Index ______ Graphs ______

Figure 7

INDIVIDUAL READING RECORD

Student's Name ______________________ Grade ______________________

(Write date in appropriate box)

Objectives to be Achieved	Started Working On	Making Progress	Mastered
1. Following directions			
2. Drawing conclusions			
3. Prefixes			
4. Vowel rules (VC, VCV)			

2. *Class Records.*

a. **Class Ledger.**
One solution to the problem of identifying groups of students needing help on a particular skill is the development of a class ledger. Figure 8 is a sample of such a ledger.

The class ledger is a form on which the program objectives or skills are listed along the left hand margin and spaces are provided across the top of the page for listing the students' names. Thus, the teacher has a grid on which it is possible to indicate for each student which program objectives have been accomplished and which have not. The class ledger provides a class profile that can be used by the teacher to plan instructional activities. The profile also indicates which students need instruction for which objectives. As a basic planning tool, the information from the ledger indicates to the teacher which students have similar needs and might, therefore, be grouped together for instruction.

Information on the class ledger should be recorded continually. This includes results from the initial assessment of program objectives as well as information collected by the teacher as he/she monitors the success of the instruction. Most systems use a plus and minus recording system, plus (+) indicating that the student can perform the objective and minus (−) indicating that he has not yet performed the task satisfactorily. A blank indicates that the student has not yet been evaluated on that objective. In the plus and minus system, it is easy to change a minus to a plus when a student has accomplished a skill he could not previously perform.

b. **Key Sort Records.**
A second type of group or class record is the key sort card (See Figure 9). This card has a series of holes around the edge that are matched to program objectives. Each student has a card, and as he demonstrates the accomplishment of an objective, the edge of the card beside the hole that matches the objective is notched out. Thus, when the cards from all students in the class are stacked and a sorting needle is inserted in the hole for a particular objective, the cards for those children who have been notched will fall off the sorting needle (See Figure 10). Those students whose cards remain on the needle have not accomplished the objective and, therefore, need instruction.

While the class ledger provides a visible profile of the class, the key sort provides a quick way to determine possible instructional groups. Another advantage of the key sort card is that it also forms an individual record for the student that can be passed along with him/her to different teachers or different schools.

CLASS LEDGER OF READING SKILLS

Figure 8

SKILLS	Students
WORD RECOGNITION	
Auditory Discrimination:	
General Sounds	
Rhyming Words	
Visual Discrimination:	
Pictures and Shapes	
Letter Forms and Shapes	
Words	
Phonetic Analysis:	
Initial Consonants	
Medial Consonants	
Final Consonants	
Consonant Blends	
Short Vowels	
Structural Analysis:	
Plurals, s or es	
Compound Words	
Sight Words:	
Pre-Primer to Primer	
First Grade	
Second Grade	
Third to Fourth Grade	
COMPREHENSION	
Literal:	
Locating Specific Information	
Noting Details	
Reading for Details	
Recalling Sequence	
Organizing to Show Sequence	
Main Idea	
Interpretation:	
Recognizing Emotional Attitudes	
Vocabulary:	
Synonyms	
Multiple Meanings	
Homonyms	
STUDY SKILLS	
Work Study:	
Left-to-Right Progression	
Eye-Hand Coordination	
Following Directions	
Alphabetizing:	
Letters	
Words	
Parts of Books:	
Table of Contents	
Directories:	
Telephone	
Graphic Materials	
Maps	
Globes	
Oral Reading	
Lip Movements	
Other Skills (Specify)	
ATTITUDES AND INTERESTS	
Selects and reads books voluntarily	
Reads in a wide variety of subjects	
Enjoys listening to stories	
Has a library card	
Uses the library	
Has books of his own	
Takes care of books he reads	

Directions. For each of the reading skills listed, indicate each student's ability to perform the skill by recording a "+" in the appropriate box to indicate ability to perform the skill and a − to indicate inability to perform the skill.

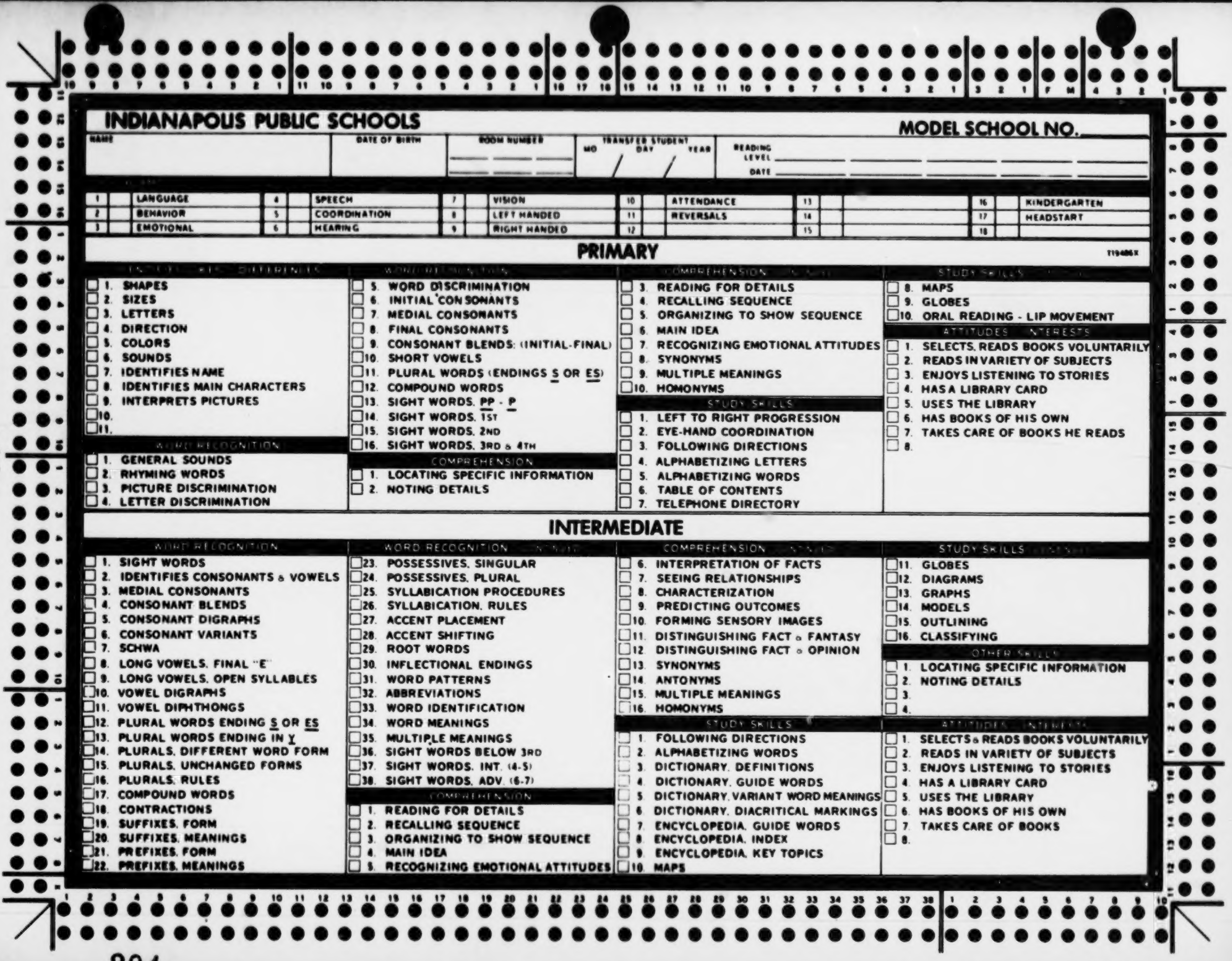


Figure 9

INDIANAPOLIS PUBLIC SCHOOLS

MODEL SCHOOL NO. ____

NAME	DATE OF BIRTH	ROOM NUMBER	TRANSFER STUDENT MO / DAY / YEAR	READING LEVEL DATE
			/ /	

1		LANGUAGE	4		SPEECH	7		VISION	10		ATTENDANCE	13			16		KINDERGARTEN
2		BEHAVIOR	5		COORDINATION	8		LEFT HANDED	11		REVERSALS	14			17		HEADSTART
3		EMOTIONAL	6		HEARING	9		RIGHT HANDED	12			15			18		

PRIMARY

T19406X

[illegible]

- ☐ 1. SHAPES
- ☐ 2. SIZES
- ☐ 3. LETTERS
- ☐ 4. DIRECTION
- ☐ 5. COLORS
- ☐ 6. SOUNDS
- ☐ 7. IDENTIFIES NAME
- ☐ 8. IDENTIFIES MAIN CHARACTERS
- ☐ 9. INTERPRETS PICTURES
- ☐ 10.
- ☐ 11.

WORD RECOGNITION

- ☐ 1. GENERAL SOUNDS
- ☐ 2. RHYMING WORDS
- ☐ 3. PICTURE DISCRIMINATION
- ☐ 4. LETTER DISCRIMINATION

WORD RECOGNITION

- ☐ 5. WORD DISCRIMINATION
- ☐ 6. INITIAL CONSONANTS
- ☐ 7. MEDIAL CONSONANTS
- ☐ 8. FINAL CONSONANTS
- ☐ 9. CONSONANT BLENDS: (INITIAL-FINAL)
- ☐ 10. SHORT VOWELS
- ☐ 11. PLURAL WORDS (ENDINGS S OR ES)
- ☐ 12. COMPOUND WORDS
- ☐ 13. SIGHT WORDS. PP - P
- ☐ 14. SIGHT WORDS. 1ST
- ☐ 15. SIGHT WORDS. 2ND
- ☐ 16. SIGHT WORDS. 3RD & 4TH

COMPREHENSION

- ☐ 1. LOCATING SPECIFIC INFORMATION
- ☐ 2. NOTING DETAILS

COMPREHENSION

- ☐ 3. READING FOR DETAILS
- ☐ 4. RECALLING SEQUENCE
- ☐ 5. ORGANIZING TO SHOW SEQUENCE
- ☐ 6. MAIN IDEA
- ☐ 7. RECOGNIZING EMOTIONAL ATTITUDES
- ☐ 8. SYNONYMS
- ☐ 9. MULTIPLE MEANINGS
- ☐ 10. HOMONYMS

STUDY SKILLS

- ☐ 1. LEFT TO RIGHT PROGRESSION
- ☐ 2. EYE-HAND COORDINATION
- ☐ 3. FOLLOWING DIRECTIONS
- ☐ 4. ALPHABETIZING LETTERS
- ☐ 5. ALPHABETIZING WORDS
- ☐ 6. TABLE OF CONTENTS
- ☐ 7. TELEPHONE DIRECTORY

STUDY SKILLS

- ☐ 8. MAPS
- ☐ 9. GLOBES
- ☐ 10. ORAL READING - LIP MOVEMENT

ATTITUDES INTERESTS

- ☐ 1. SELECTS, READS BOOKS VOLUNTARILY
- ☐ 2. READS IN VARIETY OF SUBJECTS
- ☐ 3. ENJOYS LISTENING TO STORIES
- ☐ 4. HAS A LIBRARY CARD
- ☐ 5. USES THE LIBRARY
- ☐ 6. HAS BOOKS OF HIS OWN
- ☐ 7. TAKES CARE OF BOOKS HE READS
- ☐ 8.

INTERMEDIATE

WORD RECOGNITION

- ☐ 1. SIGHT WORDS
- ☐ 2. IDENTIFIES CONSONANTS & VOWELS
- ☐ 3. MEDIAL CONSONANTS
- ☐ 4. CONSONANT BLENDS
- ☐ 5. CONSONANT DIGRAPHS
- ☐ 6. CONSONANT VARIANTS
- ☐ 7. SCHWA
- ☐ 8. LONG VOWELS. FINAL "E"
- ☐ 9. LONG VOWELS. OPEN SYLLABLES
- ☐ 10. VOWEL DIGRAPHS
- ☐ 11. VOWEL DIPHTHONGS
- ☐ 12. PLURAL WORDS ENDING S OR ES
- ☐ 13. PLURAL WORDS ENDING IN Y
- ☐ 14. PLURALS. DIFFERENT WORD FORM
- ☐ 15. PLURALS. UNCHANGED FORMS
- ☐ 16. PLURALS. RULES
- ☐ 17. COMPOUND WORDS
- ☐ 18. CONTRACTIONS
- ☐ 19. SUFFIXES. FORM
- ☐ 20. SUFFIXES. MEANINGS
- ☐ 21. PREFIXES. FORM
- ☐ 22. PREFIXES. MEANINGS

WORD RECOGNITION

- ☐ 23. POSSESSIVES. SINGULAR
- ☐ 24. POSSESSIVES. PLURAL
- ☐ 25. SYLLABICATION PROCEDURES
- ☐ 26. SYLLABICATION. RULES
- ☐ 27. ACCENT PLACEMENT
- ☐ 28. ACCENT SHIFTING
- ☐ 29. ROOT WORDS
- ☐ 30. INFLECTIONAL ENDINGS
- ☐ 31. WORD PATTERNS
- ☐ 32. ABBREVIATIONS
- ☐ 33. WORD IDENTIFICATION
- ☐ 34. WORD MEANINGS
- ☐ 35. MULTIPLE MEANINGS
- ☐ 36. SIGHT WORDS BELOW 3RD
- ☐ 37. SIGHT WORDS. INT. (4-5)
- ☐ 38. SIGHT WORDS. ADV. (6-7)

COMPREHENSION

- ☐ 1. READING FOR DETAILS
- ☐ 2. RECALLING SEQUENCE
- ☐ 3. ORGANIZING TO SHOW SEQUENCE
- ☐ 4. MAIN IDEA
- ☐ 5. RECOGNIZING EMOTIONAL ATTITUDES

COMPREHENSION

- ☐ 6. INTERPRETATION OF FACTS
- ☐ 7. SEEING RELATIONSHIPS
- ☐ 8. CHARACTERIZATION
- ☐ 9. PREDICTING OUTCOMES
- ☐ 10. FORMING SENSORY IMAGES
- ☐ 11. DISTINGUISHING FACT & FANTASY
- ☐ 12. DISTINGUISHING FACT & OPINION
- ☐ 13. SYNONYMS
- ☐ 14. ANTONYMS
- ☐ 15. MULTIPLE MEANINGS
- ☐ 16. HOMONYMS

STUDY SKILLS

- ☐ 1. FOLLOWING DIRECTIONS
- ☐ 2. ALPHABETIZING WORDS
- ☐ 3. DICTIONARY. DEFINITIONS
- ☐ 4. DICTIONARY. GUIDE WORDS
- ☐ 5. DICTIONARY. VARIANT WORD MEANINGS
- ☐ 6. DICTIONARY. DIACRITICAL MARKINGS
- ☐ 7. ENCYCLOPEDIA. GUIDE WORDS
- ☐ 8. ENCYCLOPEDIA. INDEX
- ☐ 9. ENCYCLOPEDIA. KEY TOPICS
- ☐ 10. MAPS

STUDY SKILLS

- ☐ 11. GLOBES
- ☐ 12. DIAGRAMS
- ☐ 13. GRAPHS
- ☐ 14. MODELS
- ☐ 15. OUTLINING
- ☐ 16. CLASSIFYING

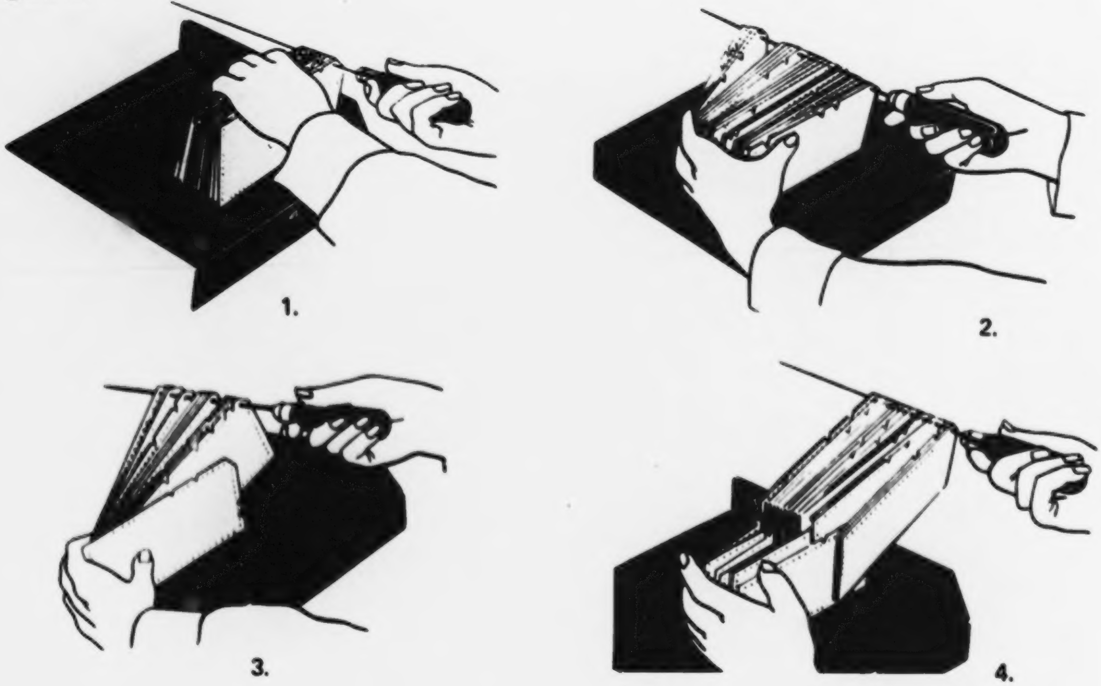
OTHER SKILLS

- ☐ 1. LOCATING SPECIFIC INFORMATION
- ☐ 2. NOTING DETAILS
- ☐ 3.
- ☐ 4.

ATTITUDES INTERESTS

- ☐ 1. SELECTS & READS BOOKS VOLUNTARILY
- ☐ 2. READS IN VARIETY OF SUBJECTS
- ☐ 3. ENJOYS LISTENING TO STORIES
- ☐ 4. HAS A LIBRARY CARD
- ☐ 5. USES THE LIBRARY
- ☐ 6. HAS BOOKS OF HIS OWN
- ☐ 7. TAKES CARE OF BOOKS
- ☐ 8.

Figure 10



1. 2. 3. 4.

E. SUGGESTIONS FOR IMPLEMENTATION. Every teacher who uses grouping successfully realizes that the managing of groups should be approached cautiously and judiciously. The teacher must work cooperatively with students in planning, directing and evaluating their work activities; yet, the teacher must also assume responsibility for their progress and achievement. Here is a summary of some suggestions that may help:

- Get the pupils involved in cooperative planning in order that they will understand clearly both purposes or goals and things that they are to do.
- Make certain that each group has sufficient work to last through the anticipated period of time it will be working independently. Be certain that the work is reading related and worthwhile.
- Check before the work is started to make certain that everyone understands what to do.
- Introduce new work or new ideas with special care to help students avoid possible difficulties.
- Between meeting with a reading group, move about, evaluate and direct students by lending them a hand, talking with them, answering their questions and giving them suggestions.
- Anticipate possible trouble and be ready to help replace the work as necessary to prevent stoppage and discouragement.
- Talk about group relationships, such as respecting the rights and opinions of others, taking turns, listening while someone else is talking, borrowing and returning books, not disturbing the teacher when he is giving direct reading instruction to another group and not disturbing another group who might be involved with an activity that requires a quieter atmosphere.
- Instruct children on how to arrange their time so that they do not spend too little or too much time doing certain things.
- Provide an ample supply of materials, such as books, paper, crayons, paint and scissors, for carrying on all aspects of the project.

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Section VII
Evaluation

Chapter 21
Evaluation of the Reading Program

21 Evaluation of the Reading Program

A. DEFINITION OF EVALUATION. Evaluation is the process of making rational educational decisions based on the needs and goals of a particular educational setting. As the instructional leaders and decision-makers, principals and teachers can continuously evaluate their programs and make changes as needed.

Many people equate the term *evaluation* with the standardized tests routinely administered to children. This form of evaluation may or may not be sufficient depending on the needs and philosophy of the program. Standardized test scores present one aspect of student achievement and program success, but other factors should be taken into consideration.

For a thorough evaluation, data about the reading program and the context in which it takes place should be gathered, analyzed, and interpreted. Judgments and decisions are made regarding curriculum instruction, and materials as well as pupil performance and progress.

For example, a teacher may have instilled in the children considerable motivation to read independently. The number of books and magazines read by the children would indicate the effectiveness of this program. Other important considerations in evaluating a reading program are whether the teacher has provided the children with materials at appropriate levels and whether instruction in skills or strategies is appropriate to the children's needs.

There are two distinct views of evaluation (Erlandson, 1973). One view is that evaluation is a check on whether the goals and objectives have been mastered. The behavior of administrators, teachers and students is monitored to ensure compliance with the master plan. The result of this type of evaluation is a rating of the program's value. The second view is that evaluation is a system.

With this position, pertinent features of the program are assessed, and alternatives to improve the program are generated. The view of evaluation as a system is emphasized in this chapter. With this view, the evaluation is seen as emerging as the system is studied. All aspects of the evaluation plan do not need to be specified before the evaluation begins — as aspects evolve, they are included.

B. PURPOSES OF EVALUATION. There are three main purposes for evaluating a reading program:

1. *To make decisions regarding instruction.*
Evaluation to make instructional decisions is the most valid purpose for evaluating. The decisions may be posed as questions which the evaluation will be designed to answer. Examples of decision questions that can be answered by evaluation results are:

- Should norm-referenced or criterion-referenced tests be purchased?
- Is an external reading laboratory necessary?
- What supplemental materials should be ordered?

It may be noted here that these questions would have direct bearing on actions taken by school members. This type of evaluation does not indicate how well students have achieved; instead, student and teacher needs would be utilized in answering these questions concerning the instructional program.

2. *To determine which aspects of a program are acceptable and which need to be improved.*
The next step is to determine the direction for the recommended changes. It is not really possible to complete an evaluation with one rating of a program's overall quality. Instead, some aspects will emerge as better than others. When evaluation is an on-going process, an identified problem can be corrected. Examples of questions regarding strengths and weaknesses of a program are:

- How well are the students preforming in phonics?
- How many books have the students read independently?
- How many new vocabulary words does each student master in a week?

3. *To determine the success of a program.*
There are various reasons for collecting this information to determine the success of the current program. One is for the teacher to assess his/her effectiveness. Another is to provide information to a public which demands accountability by the schools. For both reasons, standardized achievement test scores are often sought as the key determiner of a teacher's worth. Although these scores serve a purpose, they reflect only one aspect of the reading program — students' ability to perform on the types of items included on the test. Other valuable information concerning the reading program such as the materials provided for the children, the number of books read, and the students' attitudes toward reading are often omitted because they are more difficult to interpret and report. Standardized test scores may not really meet the purpose since they cannot reveal trends in achievement when schools do not continue to use the same test or test forms. Since accountability to parents and the public is very important, schools should compile comprehensive evaluation reports on their programs and thereby inform parents and the public about significant features in a good reading program.

C. IMPLEMENTING AN EVALUATION. This section presents seven steps for evaluating a reading program. Although a more sophisticated and more lengthy procedure could be pursued, these steps will aid the teacher or administrator in making instructional decisions. (For a thorough treatment of evaluation issues, see Morris' *Program Evaluation Kit.*) With each of these steps, it is recognized that the most important decisions regarding instruction are made within the classroom. Therefore, the classroom teacher must be involved in determining the direction that evaluation will take and the questions it will address. The seven steps are:

- Determine the purpose(s) of the evaluation and the decisions it will facilitate,
- Determine the audience for the evaluation report,
- Determine who will conduct the evaluation,
- Collect relevant information,
- Analyze the information,
- Draw conclusions, and
- Formulate instructional decisions based on the information collected.

1. *Determine the purpose(s).*
Three general purposes for evaluating a reading program were described earlier in the chapter. Proceeding from general concerns, such as whether to focus on general achievement or areas to improve and whether to concern one classroom or a total school corporation, more specific purposes are formulated. One method of focusing the evaluation is to pose questions covering the teachers, materials, methods, context and reading environments, and existing measurement and evaluation procedures.

Questions such as those that follow could be completed by the principal, the classroom teacher and at least one other professional. The exact questions to be answered would be determined by the school. Areas which appear to be weak would be areas for indepth evaluation. The evaluation process would lead to decisions regarding ways to improve weak areas of the program.

Teachers:

- Are the teachers ambitious, energetic, and willing to stay up-to-date in reading education by taking advanced classes, reading professional materials and by attending helpful workshops?
- Are they adequately trained in testing and reading diagnosis, and are they willing to pay close attention to the unique needs of each child?
- Do the teachers have a knowledge of the total reading process?
- Do the teachers keep accurate, up-to-date records and progress charts for each child?

Materials:

- Is the reading program a continuous program beginning at each student's current level and leading him at his own rate to his maximum ability?
- Are there many basal and supplementary materials available which cover a wide range of ability and interest?
- Are the teachers aware of and skilled with all of the materials available in the school?
- Are all available resources being tapped in order to realize all objectives?

Reading Methods: Does the Program. . .

- Include training in reading for various purposes?
- Teach independence in identifying new words?
- Include the improvement of reading in the various content areas?
- Develop independence in coping with meaning difficulties?
- Provide for measuring achievement and locating reading difficulties?
- Include goals and objectives of the program which are clearly stated and understood by all?
- Include a definite period set aside each date for the teaching of fundamentals?

The Context and Reading Environment:

- Is the physical and emotional climate of the classroom conducive to teaching and learning reading?
- Is there a cooperative effort and interest on the part of all teachers and administrators?
- Is reading related to all areas of the curriculum?
- Are the parents involved in the reading process?

Measurement and Evaluation:

- Does measurement and evaluation parallel the instructional program?
- Is there ongoing measurement and evaluation of student progress?
- Does the statement of objectives clearly indicate the scope of the program facilitating measurement?

2. *Determine the audience for the evaluation report.*
The audience for the evaluation should guide the type and amount of information contained in the report and the way information is presented. An evaluation of students in a single classroom may only be relevant to the classroom teacher. If the teacher only requires information to verify instructional decisions, the report could be brief and could omit a discussion of the classroom environment, types of materials, and background of the students. A different evaluation report would be called for in evaluating a corporation-wide reading program. This evaluation would be relevant to parents and the general public and may be printed in the newspaper and other sources. Because of the diverse audience, the report should be comprehensive, include examples and illustrations, and avoid technical language and educational jargon.

3. *Determine who will conduct the evaluation.*
Although the responsibility for evaluating may be the most important issue to those involved, it must be determined by the preceding concerns, such as the purpose and audience for the evaluation. Evaluation should not exclude classroom teachers — they are experienced evaluators. For the purpose of answering classroom-related questions, the teacher is the best person to assess the children and make educational decisions.

The teacher may wish to enlist aid from the reading specialist, school psychologist, other department members, or measurement experts. These persons could provide technical assistance, but they would not plan the evaluation without the teacher. For a school-wide or corporation-wide evaluation, a committee of reading, curriculum and measurement teachers and administrators may work together to develop the plan. Specific tasks may be assigned to several persons depending on their interests and expertise.

In some instances an external evaluator may be sought. An expert free of vested interest in the results may be needed for large school corporations or federally funded programs. If an external evaluator is hired, the school must work with that person to ensure agreement regarding the goals of the evaluation. It should not be assumed by any school, however, that evaluation cannot be done internally.

4. *Collect relevant information.*
After the questions that will be answered by the evaluation have been stated, the evaluators determine how to collect the information and when. Information collection may be an ongoing process throughout the year. With a system approach to evaluation, new decisions may be necessary as the information collection proceeds.

Information can be collected using any of the many commercially developed assessment instruments and informal teacher made instruments. Sample evaluation questions are provided below with ideas for the types of assessment instruments that are appropriate:

Question: How are my school's students performing compared with other schools in the country?

Source: A norm-referenced standardized achievement test would provide norms which can be compared across schools only if the same test were used by all schools. The same test would not be appropriate for all schools, however, because schools have different curricula. Student achievement in the basal may be another indication.

Question: Can the students in my fourth grade class recognize in context or in isolation the words needed to read this story?

Source: A teacher-made inventory which contains a list of words the student is to pronounce. Listen to child read words orally in context.

Question: Which standardized test will be useful to evaluate our program?

Source: Item analysis process. (See next page.)

MATCHING TEST ITEMS TO PROGRAM OBJECTIVES

Elementary Reading Program Objectives
Grade 4

Test		1	2	3	4	5	.n	Total
1.	A	2	3	1	0	1		
2.	B	5	1	2	1	0		
3.	C	1	4	1	0	4		
4.	D	2	1	3	2	1		
5.	E	2	3	1	1	4		

Technique for analyzing text content by objectives:

1. List program objectives.
2. Prepare chart. Number program objectives across top. List tests down left side.
3. Ask 3 or more teachers to review each test for items corresponding to learning objectives. Put tally in boxes.
4. Analyze chart to determine which test best corresponds to your program objectives.

Question: Are students making adequate progress in areas identified in the needs assessment?

Source: Record keeping involving individual student or small group objectives and informal tests on these objectives is needed to answer this question. (See Chapter 20.)

Question: Has the school-wide sustained silent reading program been a success?

Source: (The original objectives for the program should be available; and at the time they were written, evaluation procedures should have been designed).
Inventory of attitude toward reading.
Inventory of books read during the year.

Question: Can my students apply what they learn from reading to other situations?

Source: Checklist for a science project requiring students to use information contained in their reading.

5. *Analyze information according to purpose.*
The information is analyzed to answer the question(s) which guided the information collection. As information is collected and/or analyzed, further areas of relevance may emerge and be evaluated. It may also be necessary to collect additional information to answer a question or to refine the answer.

6. *Draw conclusions from the information.*
The persons engaged in evaluating draw conclusions about the program based on the analysis of information. This information is then communicated to the relevant audiences. The evaluators should have full understanding of the reading program and the school. If teachers and the principal are the evaluators, this does not usually pose any problems. If external evaluators are involved, however, it is crucial to stress that the conclusions should be relevant to instructional practices.

7. *Formulate instructional decisions.*
The persons evaluating the program also make decisions about the program based on the conclusions. Again, this step emphasizes the need for teachers to be involved to ensure the results will be useful.

The steps for program implementation are ongoing — the program decisions may modify the objectives and produce new questions to investigate. This chapter has emphasized the teacher's role as an educational decision-maker. Evaluation can be a guide for planning instruction, monitoring needs, and ensuring student success (Farr and Brown, 1974). If it is planned and conducted concurrently with instruction, evaluation becomes a way of organizing instruction rather than a separate procedure. When teachers are supported in their efforts to work toward meeting student needs, evaluation saves time and ensures appropriate instruction.

SAMPLE EVALUATION PLAN

Objectives	Questions	Instrument/ Method	Person Responsible	Date	Results	Decision
1. Students read one book independently each month.	What is each student's reading level?	IRI and Standardized test	Teacher	September-October	range P-4	None
	What books are available?	Survey library	Library	September	list	Purchase more primer level books
	Is there time during class for independent reading?	Ask teacher	Teacher	September	15 minutes per week	Provide 20 minutes per day for independent reading

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Section VIII
Rule C-1, 1-C, Section 7: Educational Improvement Program

RULE C-1, 1-C, SECTION 7: EDUCATIONAL IMPROVEMENT PROGRAM

Throughout the 1970's concern was voiced in the media and elsewhere that students were not acquiring the basic and citizenship skills they needed to function in America's increasingly complex and technological society. As a result of this concern, some state legislatures have enacted minimum competency testing laws. In states where such legislation is in force, legal problems have arisen with parents contending that their children were denied due process and/or the opportunity to acquire the skills that they needed.

Indiana's Approach

After studying programs in other states, the Senate Education Committee directed the General Commission of the State Board of Education to develop a plan. This plan became a curriculum rule, Rule C-1, 1-C.7, in 1978. The Department of Public Instruction then formulated a model to help schools implement the rule. This model and the rule are generally referred to as the Educational Improvement Program (EIP).

The Educational Improvement Program contains four important aspects which make it different from a statewide minimum competency testing law. It involves reliance upon local decisions; multiple measures of student achievement; involvement of local citizenry, parents, and educators; and local development or selection of tests. Because Rule C-1 is an educational improvement program which is largely designed at the local level, it provides opportunities for the meaningful involvement of local reading professionals.

Description of Rule C-1, 1-C, Section 7

Rule C-1, 1-C, Section 7 focuses on educational improvement for Indiana students throughout their school careers. It involves much more than passing a test to receive a high school diploma although local corporations may choose to add that feature if they wish. It requires:

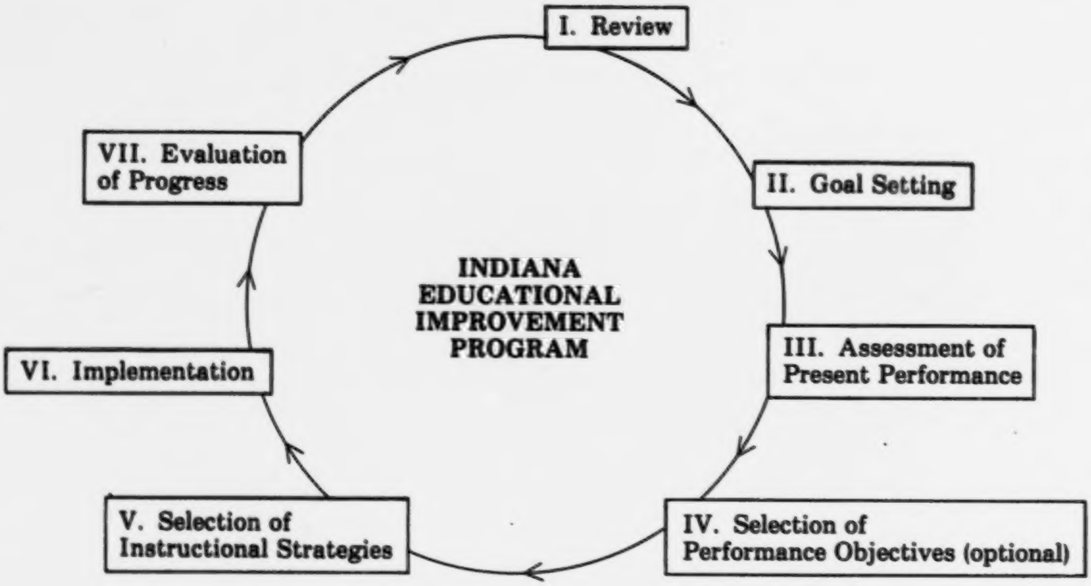
- Forming a *local advisory committee* of teachers, administrators, parents and committee members. This provides input from all segments of the community in an important area — setting local standards of achievement.
- Adopting *goals and objectives,* to show what students are to learn in basic and applied citizenship skills. Areas covered by Rule C-1 shall be updated at least once every six (6) years according to the following schedule: reading in 1983; composition and spelling in 1984; social studies in 1985; mathematics in 1986; science in 1987; computer literacy initially in 1984 and updated each six (6) years beginning in 1988.
- *Determining what students need* to learn through systematic observations and testing.
- *Providing instruction* and *materials* to help students, based on their individual needs.
- *Evaluating student progress* toward objectives using both tests and other data such as teacher systematic skill checklists.
- *Reporting to parents* every year so they know how their child is progressing in basic skills.

A complete copy of the rule is included at the end of this section.

Implications of the Educational Improvement Program for the Reading Teacher

The Educational Improvement Program is now an integral part of Indiana's educational system. The effects of this curricular program are widespread, touching many teachers, grades K through 12. It is important, therefore, not to focus solely on the rule, but to recognize the intent of the rule — to improve educational opportunities for the children in Indiana schools.

Diagram of EIP Model


I. Review
II. Goal Setting
III. Assessment of Present Performance
IV. Selection of Performance Objectives (optional)
V. Selection of Instructional Strategies
VI. Implementation
VII. Evaluation of Progress
INDIANA EDUCATIONAL IMPROVEMENT PROGRAM

I. Review

Review present program

II. Goal Setting

Identify overall corporation goals

Identify main topics of program

Set program goals

Adopt program objectives

III. Assessment of Present Performance (Needs Assessment/Diagnosis)

Assess present performance of students

Identify the gap between *what is desired* (program objectives) and *what is* (present performance)

IV. Selection of Performance Objectives (optional)

Identify performance objectives

V. Selection of Instructional Strategies

Identify teaching/learning activities

Identify needed personnel, materials, services and their costs

Select appropriate instructional/organizational strategies

VI. Implementation

Implement strategies

Monitor implementation

VII. Evaluation of Progress

Evaluate student progress

Many teachers with reading responsibilities will be asked to serve on EIP committees or task groups at the local level. Typically, this involvement includes formulating goals and objectives, selecting or developing tests, devising informal student assessment techniques, or suggesting remedial strategies. Serving on EIP committees can result in a great deal of professional growth as well as valuable input into the school reading program. Preceding sections of this guide provide information that teachers can use as they serve on EIP committees to improve the reading program for students.

Rule C-1, 1-C, Section 7, encourages communication between school personnel and the community on a subject of prime importance to each — the education of the children in their schools. This provides the opportunity for a better understanding between the schools and the community. Within the school framework, the discussions among elementary, middle, and secondary school teachers and administrators foster continuity of reading instruction from grades K through 12.

The EIP model emphasizes the need not only for continuity of curriculum throughout the grades, but also for the provision of a comprehensive program in reading. The need to review curricular offerings provides an opportunity to define exactly what the goals of instruction are and to determine whether existing courses and curricular organizations are comprehensive enough to address all these goals. The goals and objectives provide a broad organizational framework for all teachers. This should allow for flexibility in teaching within the parameters of the guidelines set forth.

Rule C-1 is Indiana's answer to the growing public awareness that testing is not the whole answer to educational problems. It recognizes both the need for a comprehensive overall plan providing continuity of instruction throughout all grades and the need for parent and community involvement in the education of Indiana's students.

THE EDUCATIONAL IMPROVEMENT PROGRAM

The Educational Improvement Program (EIP) has been developed to assist Indiana school corporations in carrying out the Rule C-1, 1-C, Section 7 mandated by the Commission on General Education of Indiana State Board of Education in February, 1978. The system diagrammed on the following page emphasizes continuity in curricular planning, evaluation and revision. Local standard setting based on cooperation among teachers, administrators, parents and community members is an integral part of the system. A step-by-step summary of the Educational Improvement Program follows to guide the improvement of reading programs.

Included in this summary are references to preceding sections of this guide. The EIP model incorporates many of the program planning and assessment procedures which are more fully described in sections of this guide. By using this guide in the EIP process, educators will make steady progress toward improvement of the school reading program.

A. *Formation of Local Advisory Committee*

A local advisory committee is responsible for reviewing and recommending local standards of student performance. The committee shall include at least the following: teachers, administrators, parents and community members. Some school corporations may already have committees, such as textbook adoption committees, which fulfill the membership requirements. These committees might be used in the assessment and program planning process. These tasks need not be severely time consuming if all members are involved in specific areas of the responsibility.

B. *Review of Present Program*

The first step in program planning is a systematic description of the present program. In this step, personnel of the local school corporation review the present program. Information to be collected might include: goals and objectives of the present program; classes and grade levels in which instruction is given; amount of time devoted to instruction; and personnel, materials and facilities utilized. Areas of weakness in the reading program can then be identified for further attention. An outline for a review is contained in Section II. It is wise to include as many teachers as possible in this phase so that future program planning is meaningful.

C. *Development of a Timeline for Program Implementation*

Once the present program has been reviewed, the local school corporation establishes a timeline for the remainder of the program planning steps. Factors to be considered in setting the timeline are required dates for reporting to the state, time limits established by testing companies, school vacations and time required to accomplish tasks associated with each step of program planning.

D. *Adoption of Program Goals and Objectives*

Program goals and objectives are to be reviewed and recommended by the local advisory committee. The objectives may be developed by task groups or selected from available lists, such as those in Section I, but they will become the statement of what is to be learned at each grade level in a school system. Year-to-year experience will reveal how goals and objectives will be refined. At this point, attention is given to selecting instruments appropriate for evaluating attainment of program goals and objectives. Program goals and objectives are established for all grade levels so that expectations for students are clearly outlined for teachers at each grade level.

E. *Establishment of Local Standards of Student Performance*

The local advisory committee reviews and recommends local standards of student performance to the governing body of the school corporation. The substance and number of those standards are left to the discretion of the local corporation, as are decisions concerning the use of those standards. Each July the local corporation reports its standards to the Department of Public Instruction along with the number of students attaining the standards and efforts made on behalf of students who fail to meet the standards.

F. *Assessment of Present Student Performance*

In order to design appropriate learning activities, it is necessary to determine the educational needs of students. An educational need is considered to be a gap between the present performance of students and desired performance as set forth in the program goals and objectives adopted by the school corporation. Test results are but one source of information that can be used in determining student needs. Others are textbook mastery tests, teacher constructed tests, systematic teacher observation and skill checklists. Tips for assessing student performance are included in Section II. In Section II it is also noted that the most valuable assessment will result from the use of several assessment strategies.

G. *Selection of Performance Objectives* (Optional)

The professional staff in each school selects appropriate performance objectives. Performance objectives tell *what learners will be able to do* as the result of the instruction, *under what conditions* they will be able to do it and *to what level of mastery* they will be able to do it.

Performance objectives do not dictate learning or teaching style. Professional teacher expertise and judgment are essential in the choice of methods, techniques, materials and suitable learning environment. As with program goals and objectives, experience will show how lists of performance objectives will be refined. Performance objectives are not intended to be inhibiting in terms of teaching or learning styles. They are intended to assist students in learning essential skills and to assist teachers in planning for instruction.

H. *Selection of Instructional/Organizational Strategies*

Based upon the needs identified and objectives selected, the professional staff should identify appropriate instructional strategies. Descriptions of various teaching/learning activities should be made to identify materials and other resources which are available to support each activity. Inservice training may be needed to assist teachers in selecting instructional/organizational strategies. For further assistance in selecting instructional and organizational strategies, refer to Section IV and Section VI. Section IV outlines eight approaches to reading instruction and Section VI suggests various ways of organizing students.

I. *Implementation and Monitoring*

Once appropriate strategies have been identified and selected, they are implemented. It may be desirable to accompany implementation with inservice activities to insure that teachers and other school personnel understand what is expected. In all probability, minor adjustments will need to be made in the strategies after they are implemented. Staff suggestions can be an invaluable aid in this process of adjustment. Views of parents and students may be solicited, too, either formally through a survey instrument or informally at parent and student conferences. Observation checklists may prove useful. School corporations may also wish to consider adopting a uniform recordkeeping system to show pupil progress through the objectives which form the basis for instruction. Monitoring efforts can be planned into regular instructional activities. Teachers can look for evidence of success within the instructional process itself. Several examples of checklists are offered in Section VII.

J. *Evaluation of Student Progress*

School corporations are to evaluate the progress of students toward the stated objective in grades 3-6-8-10 (or in a comparable grade sequence). This evaluation must include both formal testing and the use of other, informal measures. In choosing and/or constructing both formal and informal measures, a school corporation needs to keep two critical concerns in mind: *Curricular Validity* or the extent to which items on the measure match the objectives of the curriculum, and *instructional validity* or the extent to which items on the measure match instruction provided to students. By using a combination of formal measures (reading achievement tests, criterion referenced tests) and informal measures (checklists, interest inventories, anecdotal records, or teacher constructed tests), teachers can be sure that they are assessing the progress of students in reaching *all* the goals and objectives outlined in their reading plan. Section VIII offers suggestions for using both formal and informal measures of student evaluation.

K. *Parent Report System*

Each spring, a report must be given to parents on the progress of their children in the basic skills. These reports may be written or may take the form of conferences or some other means of communication. Since teachers will be keeping progress records of students, a copy of these records may be sufficient. It may be necessary to have an orientation session for parents to explain the reporting system and any technical language used. In addition to information on the child's mastery or nonmastery of objectives, other information may be added, such as an indication of what the child is now studying; recommendations from the teacher on what the parent may do to assist his or her child; teacher comments, parent comments, and student comments.

L. *Program Plan Report*

Each year local school corporations submit to the Indiana Department of Public Instruction a Program Plan Report CAPPS-1 for the subject areas covered by Rule C-1, 1-C, Section 7, according to the following schedule:

1. By August 1, 1983, the program plan for reading.
2. By August 1, 1984, the program plan for composition, spelling, and computer literacy.
3. By August 1, 1980, the program plan for mathematics in addition to updated programs in reading, composition, spelling and social studies.
4. By August 1, 1981, the program plan for science in addition to updated programs in reading, composition, spelling, social studies and mathematics.
5. By August 1 of each year thereafter, updated program plan reports in all the above curriculum areas.

M. *Evaluation Reports*

Two evaluation reports are due July 1 of each year beginning 1979.

One report, the *State Progress Evaluation Report*, identifies the school corporation's self-analysis of progress made toward program goals and learning objectives.

The other report, the *Test Report*, presents a summary of scores on tests administered to students together with the name of the test, the grade levels tested and the time of testing.

Test scores will be aggregated on the basis of the test used, and no individual district's scores will be identifiable.

AMENDED C-1 RULE, SECTION 7 ADMINISTRATIVE HANDBOOK

RULE C-1, 1-C

A. Each school corporation shall maintain a current educational improvement program of evaluation and follow-up in the subject matter areas listed. The educational improvement program shall be updated at least once every six (6) years according to the following initial schedule: 1) reading in 1983; 2) composition and spelling in 1984; 3) social studies in 1985; 4) mathematics in 1986; 5) science in 1987; 6) computer literacy initially in 1984 and updated each six (6) years beginning in 1988.

Each school corporation shall form a local advisory committee for the purpose of determining and recommending to the governing body of that school corporation the local standards of student performance in each subject area. This committee shall consist of teachers, administrators, parents, and community members.

B. By August 1 of the years specified, a comprehensive plan for evaluation of the school corporation curriculum program at four (4) grade levels (two in grades one (1) through six (6), one in grades seven (7) and eight (8), and one in grades nine (9) through twelve (12)) shall be submitted to the Department of Public Instruction for review and approval. A comprehensive plan for all grade levels shall be retained in the files of the school corporation. This comprehensive plan shall include a description of: 1) program goals and objectives (expected achievement of students); 2) assessment of needs (testing of students performance to determine *their* strengths and weaknesses); 3) prescribed instructional procedures and strategies (corrective and developmental) which are based on the diagnosis so that the identified needs of all students are met; 4) evaluation of pupil progress (this evaluation shall include a testing program at the four (4) grade levels selected for reporting to the Department of Public Instruction; it also shall include checklists, systematic teacher observations and other measures of achievement); 5) a timeline for implementation and evaluation of the updated program.

C. Students shall be evaluated each year as to basic skills utilizing evaluation instruments based on school objectives and diagnostic-prescriptive teaching. Schools have the option of: 1) developing their own test based on locally determined objectives; 2) requesting assistance from the Department of Public Instruction in developing tests which are consistent with their own objectives; 3) purchasing commercially prepared tests.

D. Mentally handicapped, learning disabled, and emotionally handicapped students, as defined in 510 IAC 7-1-4 may, but are not required to, participate in the program. Sensory or physically handicapped students shall have the program administered in such a manner as to be appropriate to their needs.

E. Each year the school corporation shall report to parents/legal guardian the progress of each child in basic skills.

F. By July 1 of each year, the school corporation shall submit to the Department of Public Instruction an evaluation report of the curriculum program in the grades tested. Individual student evaluations should be part of the school's records but are not to be included in the annual report to the Department of Public Instruction.

G. School corporations may use test scores as a local graduation requirement in addition to the minimum standards specified in 510 IAC 9-2.

Glossary

GLOSSARY

Accent — The relative degree of breath force with which a syllable is spoken.

Accountability — Subject to giving an account of an educational program and its effectiveness.

Achievement Age — The performance level for a given achievement test in which the pertormance level is stated in terms of the chronological age group for which this performance level is average.

Achievement Test — A test which measures the degree to which a person has achieved in a given subject field or in the general aspects of schooling.

Age Norms — Values representing average performance for persons according to chronological age.

Alternate-form Reliability — The correlation between results on alternate forms of a test.

Anecdotal Report — A written record of observed behavior.

Arithmetic Mean — The sum of a set of test scores divided by the number of scores.

Assessment Instrument — Any instrument used to collect evaluative information.

Auditory Discrimination — The ability to differentiate between sounds.

Basal Reader Approach — A reading program in which instructional content and methodology are determined through the use of a series of basal readers.

Battery — A group of tests that have been standardized on the same population and whose results are of value individually, in combination and/or totally.

Bibliotherapy — The dynamic interaction between a reader and a piece of literature through which the reader satisfies emotional needs or finds solutions to personal-social problems by identifying with story characters or situations.

Centile — A scaled score below which are any given percentage of cases.

Checklist — Words, phrases or statements to be checked according to directions by an observer.

Cloze Procedure — A testing method in which words from a passage are deleted and underlined spaces substituted. Subjects attempt to fill in the spaces with the correct words.

Consonant — A speech sound that is characterized by a modification of the discharged breath by the lips, teeth, tongue or palates.

Consonant Blend — The combination of two or more consonant sounds without intervening vowel sounds.

Consonant Digraph — Two consonants which are sounded as a single sound.

Content Area Approach — A reading method in which reading instruction is provided as a part of the instructional program in one or more of the content subjects, e.g., science, social science.

Correlation — The degree of relationship between two or more variables.

Criterion Referenced Tests — An assessment technique deliberately constructed to measure data in terms of specific performance standards.

Decile — One of the nine percentile points that divide a rank distribution into 10 per cent of all cases.

Derived Form — A root word plus one or more prefixes and/or suffixes.

Diagnostic Test — A test designed to locate specific strengths and/or weaknesses of a person.

Digraph — Two successive letters which are sounded as a single sound.

Diphthong — Two vowels which are combined to form a single blended sound.

Dyslexia — Language disorder in which the ability to read, write and spell are not commensurate with intellectual ability.

Equivalent Form — Two or more forms of a test with similar content and item difficulty that will yield scores with similar averages and of similar variability for a given group.

Evaluation — The process of making educational decisions based on needs and goals.

Experience Approach — A reading approach in which the instructional program is based on real experiences the children have had.

Factor Analysis — One of several methods of analyzing the intercorrelations among a set of variables.

Frequency Distribution — A tabulation of scores from high to low or from low to high showing the number of persons who obtained each score or whose score fell in the group of scores.

Frustration Reading Level — The level at which the child reads with more than ten word recognition errors in 100 words (below 90 per cent) with below 50 per cent comprehension.

Grade Equivalent — A score based upon the grade (year and month) achieved by average individuals in that grade level.

Grapheme — A functional graphic unit not able to be divided; the smallest written unit.

Hawthorne Effect — The situation in which the fact that a person knows he is involved in an experiment or receiving special treatment will affect his performance.

Independent Reading Level — The level at which a child can read with no more than one word recognition error in each 100 words (99 per cent) with at least 90 per cent comprehension.

Inflected Form — A root or derived word to which an inflectional ending has been added, i.e., -s.

Informal Instrument — Evaluation instrument, often teacher-made, whose administration may be modified to suit the needs of the testing situation. Examples include interest inventories, informal reading inventories, checklists, anecdotal records.

Instructional Reading Level — The level at which the child can read with no more than five word recognition errors in 100 words (95 per cent) with at least 80 per cent comprehension.

Intelligence Quotient — The ratio of a person's mental age to the mental age normal for his chronological age.

Intonation — Structure or pattern of pitch.

Inventory Test — A test designed to appraise an individual's status in a particular area, e.g., attitudes, interests, skills.

Item Analysis — Any one of a number of processes used to assess the discrimination characteristics (difficulty value) of a test item as it correlates with some criterion.

Kuden-Richardson Formula(s) — A formula used to estimate the reliability of a test on the basis of information about the individual items or the mean score, standard deviation and a number of items in the test.

Listening Level — The level at which the child can comprehend 75 per cent of the material read to him by the examiner.

Locally Constructed Test — A test designed and constructed by local persons rather than a commercial test publisher. The test may or may not have norms.

Median — The middle score in a ranked distribution of scores.

Mental Age — The chronological age for which a given performance on an intelligence test is average or normal.

Mode — The most frequent score in a distribution of scores.

Morpheme — An indivisible meaning unit in the structure of words, e.g., cat, re-, -ed, -est.

Normal Distribution — A symmetrical distribution of scores about the mean based on the assumption that variations from the mean are by chance. In graphic form the distribution takes on a distinctive bell-shaped curve.

Norm-Referenced Tests — Standardized tests which compare student performance on items representing reading subskills with performance of a norming group.

Norms — Test performance of specific groups described in statistical terms and often assumed to be representative of some larger population.

Objective Test — A test on which scorers cannot possibly have different opinions as to whether responses are right or wrong.

Percentile — Any one of the 99 point scores that divide a ranked distribution of scores into groups each containing 1 per cent of the scores.

Personality Test — A test designed to assess one or more of the aspects that constitute the mental, emotional and temperamental makeup of an individual.

Phoneme — The smallest significant unit of sound. In English there are about 45 phonemes, 21 consonants, 9 simple vowels; the balance are combinations.

Phonemics — The systematic use of speech sound in a specific language.

Phonics — That aspect of reading instruction in which the speech sounds of letters and groups of letters are taught.

Phonic Analysis — The process of sounding letters and groups of letters to determine how a word is pronounced.

Phonetics (phonology) — The field or discipline concerned with speech sounds.

Power Test — A test designed to assess performance level rather than speed of response.

Practice Effect — The effect of a previous experience with a test on a later examination on the same or similar test.

Primary Accent — The syllable in a word receiving the main accent.

Profile — The results of one or more tests or subtests of a single test presented in graphic form; usually bar or line graphs.

Prognosis Test — A test designed to assess skills and abilities that are prerequisite for success in a particular field in order to be able to predict future success or failure in that field.

Projective Technique — A technique for assessing a subject's personality by having him respond to a series of stimuli such as ink blots, pictures, unfinished sentences, etc.

Quartile — Any one of the three points that divide distribution of scores into four equal groups, each group containing 25 per cent of the scores.

Questionnaire — A list of questions requiring "yes" — "no", numerical and/or narrative responses. Analysis is conducted by classifying the responses and computing the percentage of subjects that respond according to each classification.

Random Sample — A sample drawn according to the law of chance in such a way that every member of the population has an equal chance of being drawn.

Range — The difference between the highest and lowest scores in a distribution of scores.

Raw Score — The unconverted and uninterpreted quantitative results of a test scored according to specific criteria.

Readability Level — The reading difficulty of reading material expressed in terms of the grade level at which the normal or average individual would be expected to read the material successfully.

Readiness — A condition of adequacy with reference to the elements of the activity to be undertaken.

Readiness Test — A test designed to assess the ability to engage in a new or different type of activity.

Reading — The process of perceiving and understanding symbols in relation to the meaning they carry.

Reliability — The degree to which a test is consistent in measuring whatever it was designed to measure.

Remedial Reading — Reading instructions designed for specific or general reading defects and generally given outside the regular reading program.

Representative Sample — A sample that matches the population it represents with respect to those characteristics that are considered important for the particular purpose for which the investigation is being made.

Scholastic Aptitude — The combination of native and acquired abilities that is needed to do school work.

Secondary Accent — A syllable in a word receiving relatively less accent than the primary accent.

Sight Words — Words which a child can immediately recognize when they are presented to him.

Sociometry — The assessment of the interpersonal relationships that exist among members of a group.

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Spearman-Brown Formula — A formula for estimating the reliability for an entire test on the basis of the correlation between two halves of the test.

Split-half Coefficient — (See Spearman-Brown Formula)

Standard Deviation — A measure used to express the variability (the extent of deviations from the mean) of a set of scores.

Standard Error — An estimate of the amount by which an individual's obtained score differs from his hypothetical true score.

Standardized Test — A test for which norms have been developed according to prescribed conditions.

Stratified Sample — A sample in which cases are drawn according to predetermined controls, e.g., geographic region, economic background, grade, sex, etc.

Structural Analysis — A word analysis technique in which the reader identifies meaningful units within the words, i.e., roots, suffixes, prefixes, syllables, inflectional endings, and relates them to the total word.

Survey Test — A test designed to assess general achievement for the purpose of establishing group status.

Syllable — A pronunciation or written unit of a word in which a vowel alone or in combination with one or more consonants is found.

Test-retest Coefficient — A coefficient of reliability based on the correlation of scores obtained on administrations of the same test. A short interval is usually provided between tests.

True Score — A score hypothetically free of errors of measurement.

Validity — The extent to which a test measures the thing it is intended to measure.

Visual Discrimination — The ability to discern differences and likenesses between visual patterns, e.g., letter forms, word pictures, geometric designs.

Voiced Sound — A sound in which air is forced through the vocal cords causing them to vibrate.

Voiceless Sound — A speech sound which is produced without vibrating the vocal cords.

Vowel — A speech sound that is produced by a comparatively free passage of air from the lungs through the lips without intervening stops or obstructions.

Vowel Digraph — Two vowels which are sounded as a single sound.

Word Analysis — A technique of analyzing a word according to its structural and/or phonetic parts.

Word Recognition — The process of identifying words according to any one or a combination of the word recognition techniques, e.g., phonetic analysis, structural analysis.

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Mailing Address:
Room 229, State House
Indianapolis, IN 46204

Office Location:
3833 N. Meridian St.
Indianapolis
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